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Early Childhood Education

Robert W Burke

Overview

That period in the human lifespan ranging from birth to age 8 is commonly referred to as “early childhood.” Hence, the broad field of early childhood education (ECE) (or, “early care and education”) encompasses a variety of programs and practices intended to address children’s learning, as well as their care and nurturance. This inextricable, dual focus on children’s education *and* holistic development represents a distinguishing characteristic of the field’s theory and practice. By adhering to a “Whole Child” perspective, teachers and caregivers working with young children (and their families) intentionally address the following key domains of children’s education, growth, and development:

- Physical—Daily nutrition and basic needs such as clothing, hygiene, monitoring of growth patterns; and development of gross and fine motor skills.
- Cognitive—Abilities related to cognitive functions including, for example, perception, communication, and information processing.
- Academic—Capacity to learn from formal and informal educational opportunities.
- Emotional—Awareness of feelings and enhanced ability to self-regulate emotions.
- Social—Personal identity; interpersonal relationships; and awareness of self in relation to social structures and norms.

Historical Development of Early Childhood Education

Recognizing the historical development of the diverse values, beliefs, and practices constituting the field of ECE is key to understanding contemporary programs as well as collaborating effectively those professionals who provide early care and education. As developed and implemented in Europe and the United States (U.S.), the field of ECE embodies core dimensions and questions about human life such that its origins can be

traced back to ancient Greece, where philosophers and other leaders carefully considered issues like child-rearing, family life, social organization, and a well-rounded education that begins in early childhood. Indeed, many of these topics are as relevant today as they were 2,000 years ago. For example, Plato (428–348 B.C.) promoted the idea of state-sponsored nurseries because he recognized the learning potential of young children as well as the sense of community that would be created by such centers of learning. Other ECE practices advanced by Plato included the belief that girls should receive the same education as boys, and that the curriculum should consist of games, stories, play, music, and drama. Although many of Plato’s ideas were considered radical at the time, his influence is readily apparent throughout the history of ECE.

The historical development of ECE in the U.S. was further influenced by a few European philosophers who advanced their ideas concerning the nexus of society, family, and child-rearing practices, as illustrated in the following examples:

- Johann Amos Comenius (1592–1670)—Believed that social reform would result from education of all people; Suggested that formal education be organized by distinct grade levels that children would complete in sequential order.
- John Locke (1623–1704)—Applied “scientific laws” of the time to study human development; Advanced the idea that the human mind was a “Tabula Rasa/Blank Slate” at birth and that learning resulted from sensory experience; Provided parents with guidelines about children’s care and education.
- Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778)—Believed in the inherent goodness of children; his highly influential book *Emile* advocated education based on freedom, interest, and activity
- Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827)—Suggested that school should be like a firm, loving family for the child; Emphasized that every person is unique; Stressed that ECE curriculum and instruction should be based on direct experience with real objects; Based his entire approach on sympathy and compassion.
- Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel (1782–1852)—Developed the “Kindergarten System” of ECE, based on play.

As ECE expanded in both conceptual and applied arenas in the U.S., the field became more

interdisciplinary. Scholars and practitioners alike tapped into additional, diverse knowledge bases (e.g., developmental psychology and neuroscience, among others), professional fields (e.g., education and social work, among others) and changing economic and social phenomena (e.g., the Industrial Revolution and Scientific Management). Influential American leaders emerged from these and other arenas, each advancing his or her beliefs about ECE, as shown in the following examples:

- John Dewey (1859–1952)—Leading advocate of the Progressive Education Movement; Taught critical thinking, decision making, and social responsibility by creating Democratic Classroom Communities; Encouraged problem solving and independent thinking by teachers and students; Promoted teacher flexibility, creativity, and responsibility.
- Patty Smith Hill (1868–1946)—Restructured and unified Kindergarten and Primary Education; Emphasized teacher and parent collaboration; Revised ECE curriculum and developed theoretical frameworks for professional preparation programs; Advanced application of scientific knowledge to ECE practice.
- Arnold Lucius Gesell (1880–1961)—Introduced child study laboratory techniques such as two-way mirrors and cinematography; Promoted the expansion of nursery schools; Stressed respect for individual differences in children's development and individualization of curriculum and instruction.

Although a comprehensive detailing of all the psychologists, philosophers, pediatricians, educators, political leaders, and advocates who have contributed to the still-evolving field of ECE is beyond the scope of this entry, it should be remembered that the sheer breadth of the field invites participation by an extraordinarily wide range of stakeholders.

Contemporary Perspectives and Programs

In contemporary practice, alternative perspectives concerning theory and practice exist among early childhood professionals and other stakeholders involved in ECE. As the diverse philosophical perspectives, psychological theories, and corollary practices highlighted above have coalesced in ECE, four major

schools of thought concerning children's growth, development, and education have emerged:

- I. Behaviorism (i.e., Thorndike, Skinner, Watson): From a behavioral perspective, the environment is regarded as the single most important variable in shaping children's development and education.
- II. Social Learning (i.e., Bandura): In this perspective, children's primary mode of learning occurs through observing and imitating others in the immediate environment.
- III. Humanistic (i.e., Rogers, Maslow): Children's natural curiosity, passion for learning, and active imaginations should be valued and supported within democratic classrooms.
- IV. Constructivist (i.e., Piaget, Vygotsky): Children are viewed as active agents in the construction of their own knowledge, which is based on prior learning combined with teacher-facilitated experiences.

In a similar vein, ECE programs adhering to one or more of the previously described perspectives can be found in various locations within most communities. Typically, such programs are offered in the following sites:

- Homes: Programs of care and education that are provided in private residences constitute the most prevalent form of privately sponsored programs. It is estimated that about 40% of children who receive care outside of their own homes do so in privately run, home-based day care.
- Centers: Larger facilities that provide services for children are referred to as "child care centers." These centers usually serve children between the ages of 3 and 5 years, most commonly for parents or guardians who are either employed full-time or attend post-secondary education institutions.
- Head Start: This federally funded program serves children from families with low incomes who are 4- and 5-years of age. In 1994, the Early Head Start program was initiated to meet the needs of children from families with low incomes under the age of 3. Both Head Start and Early Head Start are comprehensive programs, in that they provide a range of services to meet children's needs including education, social/emotional development, physical and mental health, and nutrition. In addition, both programs adhere to a family focus that includes parent education concerning children's health, welfare, development, and education.

Core Beliefs and Values in Early Childhood Education

The Code of Ethical Conduct and Statement of Commitment developed by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC, 1998)) identifies the following Core Values as paramount in the practice of ECE:

- Appreciating childhood as a unique and valuable stage of the human life cycle
- Basing our work with children on knowledge of child development
- Appreciating and supporting the close ties between the child and family
- Recognizing that children are best understood and supported in the context of family, culture, community, and society
- Respecting the dignity, worth, and uniqueness of each individual (child, family member, and colleague)
- Helping children and adults achieve their full potential in the context of relationships that are based on trust, respect, and positive regard.

See also: ● [Childhood](#); ● [Early Head Start](#); ● [Montessori](#)

Suggested Resources

The National Association for the Education of Young Children—www.naeyc.org: The NAEYC is dedicated to improving the well-being of young children, with a particular focus on the quality of educational and developmental services for all children from birth through age 8.

The Association for Childhood Education International—www.acei.org: This is a prominent resource that provides exhaustive information about the field of early childhood education and care.

Early Head Start

Cheryl A Boyce · Louisa Banks Tarullo

Early Head Start is an intervention program for school readiness designed for pregnant women and children ages 0–3 to provide comprehensive

education, health, nutrition, and services for children and families with low-incomes in all 50 states, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. Originally, Head Start was created in 1965 for children 3–5 years of age. However, the reauthorization of the Head Start Act in 1994 by the United States (U.S.) Congress created the new program Early Head Start to strengthen early intervention efforts. Research and practice suggests that early intervention for infants and toddlers through high quality programs can enhance the physical, social, emotional, and cognitive development of children; strengthen parents' caregiving, language and literacy skills; and support the economic independence of parents.

The long term success of Early Head Start is evidenced by significant gains in children's cognitive development and their social-emotional development relative to other children who served as controls in research studies and received child care only or no early intervention services at all. Parents of children who participate in Early Head Start also show increased skills for developing their children's language and literacy skill and social and emotional skills, as well as improving their own socioeconomic level. Early Head Start has continued its mission to encourage healthy prenatal outcomes, to enhance the overall developmental progress of the young child, to increase parents' skills and knowledge of child development, to strengthen the family unit, and to promote community building and staff development through program implementation and services.

Both profit and non-profit organizations may receive funds from the Head Start Bureau within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services to provide early intervention services through Early Head Start. Local programs funded through Early Head Start serve as a national laboratory to investigate the impact of early intervention through continuous, intensive and comprehensive services for pregnant women and families with very young children. Early Head Start has provided services to over 300,000 children since its inception. It grew from a program of approximately \$100 million to support 68 programs and more than 18,000 children in 1995, to a budget over \$650 million to support over 700 programs and more than 62,000 children under the age of three in 2002.

See also: ● [Early childhood education](#); ● [Early intervention](#); ● [Head Start](#)

Suggested Reading

Administration for Children and Families (2002). *Making a difference in the lives of infants and toddlers and their families: The impact of Early Head Start*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

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Garces, E., Thomas, D., & Currie, J. (2002, September). Longer-term effects of head start. *American Economic Association*, 92(4), 999–1012.

Suggested Resources

Early Head Start Toolkit—http://www.headstartinfo.org/infocenter/ehs_tkit1.htm: This website offers research and publications from the Head Start Bureau on Early Head Start.

Early Head Start Almanac—<http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/hsb/programs/ehs/ehsalmanac.htm>: This website contains information on the history and statistics of Early Head Start.

Early Intervention

Dorothy S Strickland

There is a growing body of scientific evidence on the significance of the developmental impact of early experiences, caregiving relationships, and environmental threats. This work is strong and compelling. Virtually every aspect of early human development, from the brain's evolving circuitry to the child's capacity for empathy is affected by the environments and experiences that are encountered in a cumulative fashion, beginning early in the prenatal period and extending throughout the early childhood years. Researchers and early childhood development specialists no longer question whether early experience matters, but rather how these experiences shape individual development and contribute to children's continued movement along positive pathways. Moreover, they seek appropriate ways to intervene where children and families are at risk.

During the school years, emphasis on early intervention is supported by research evidence indicating that the pattern of school failure starts early and persists throughout a child's school career. For example, longitudinal studies reveal that there is a near 90%

chance that a child who is a poor reader at the end of grade one will remain a poor reader at grade four. These children grow to dislike reading and, therefore, read considerably less than good readers both in and out of school. This is an important finding, since time spent reading is highly correlated with achievement in learning to read and reading ability is a key foundation for learning in the content areas.

Another compelling reason to promote early intervention in school is the realization that supplementary remedial programs such as Title I and "replacement" programs that substitute for regular, in-class instruction have had mixed results over the years. Some suggest they even complicate the process for the struggling learners by offering instructional approaches that are philosophically different from those offered in the classroom. Regardless of the reason for low achievement, educators recognize their responsibility to provide programs that pre-empt potential problems early and thwart the likelihood of a chain of failure throughout the school years.

A variety of approaches to prevention and intervention have reported some positive results. Family-oriented prevention programs tend to focus on both parents and their young children. Such programs may be located in a variety of settings and often target a number of outcomes. As the focus shifts from prevention to intervention, most programs reside in school settings. Many employ small group instruction; others restrict instruction to one-on-one tutoring models. Some intervention programs take place in the regular classroom with instruction supplied by the regular classroom teacher or by a learning specialist, often in reading or math. Others occur outside of the regular classroom and make use of well-supervised volunteers or paid tutors. Despite similar goals, implementation of intervention programs varies widely. Nevertheless, there is a fair degree of agreement regarding essential elements or components that should receive attention.

Implementation Components of Prevention and Intervention Programs

Timing

Many early childhood investigations focusing on interventions for infants and toddlers have reported findings that support the value of "earlier" and "more." When

children enter the kindergarten through grade 12 system it is also generally agreed that early intervention is preferable to extended remediation. Age-appropriate efforts aimed toward prevention and intervention begin during the pre-kindergarten years and receive special emphasis during the early primary grades.

Intensity and Duration

Interventions for very young children have also been studied in terms of intensity and duration and these factors are found to be associated with measurable family impacts. For families of young children with developmental disabilities, the variability in service intensity is considerable. Differences in both amount and duration of intervention may be related to the age of referral, the nature, and severity of the child's impairment, or the family's resources and needs. School age struggling learners generally receive more time on task than children not considered at risk. This may occur in the regular classroom, in a pullout setting, or some form of extended day or summer schooling.

Materials

Interventions for very young children may include materials designed for parents as well as books and toys with which parents and children engage interactively. More often than not, the focus is on specific strategies and routines. By school age, students for whom intervention is warranted are given materials they can handle successfully. For example, literacy intervention programs generally strive for materials that are interesting and engaging and provide a moderate degree of challenge without frustration.

Nature of Intervention

For both pre-kindergarten and school age children, lessons and learning strategies generally consist of a variety of activities involving a well-formulated and consistent plan or approach. The ultimate impact of pre-kindergarten programs is largely determined by the degree to which families are able to incorporate specific intervention techniques into their everyday interactions with their children. For school age children, one-to-one and small group instructional formats are widely used.

Documenting and Monitoring Progress

Intervention programs generally include some type of assessment process in which individual progress is monitored on a regular, ongoing basis. Participants are evaluated in relationship to a set of predetermined program goals, benchmarks, or levels. Emphasis on motivation to learn along with attitudes and skills that promote independence are viewed as important goals for children and their families.

Professional Development

Family and school intervention programs vary widely in their training and use of personnel. The professional development of teachers, aides, volunteers, and providers of all sorts is considered an important component of the success of all intervention models. A substantial body of research in child care settings has clearly linked well-trained, qualified teachers and staff to better outcomes, particularly for low-income children who are at risk for early developmental problems and later educational underachievement. The need for adequate professional training for staff to help them address a wide variety of special needs is evident at all levels and across all settings involving intervention.

Home/School Connection

Teaching and learning are grounded in an understanding of the need to bridge the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of learners and their families as a base for growth. Thus, a systematic program of home support and involvement is characteristic of school-based intervention programs. Many include a built in monitoring system designed to provide feedback from the home. Strengthening the bond between home, school, and community and collaborating with local social service agencies are important elements of programs that seek to prevent or intervene where children are at risk.

School Intervention and Literacy Education

No area of development has received greater attention in the school intervention literature than that of language and literacy. Experience in this area suggests

that no matter how effective an intervention may be, it does not stand alone. The problems children who are having difficulty in language and literacy face are rarely unidimensional. Nor are the solutions. There is an extremely critical need for regular classroom teachers to build safety nets for children experiencing difficulty so that they can be identified early and their problems addressed within the regular course of instruction. Some have gone so far as to say that removing students from the regular classroom and placing them in resource rooms for special or compensatory education services may be counter productive in that it may prevent classroom teachers from realizing that something is wrong with the instruction in their own classroom. Obviously, many children will require help from specialists beyond that of the regular classroom. Nevertheless, the instruction received in the regular classroom will remain at the center of the child's literacy program.

There is a growing awareness of the need for prevention in the form of strong "first teaching." This requires classroom teachers capable of identifying possible problems and skillful at differentiating instruction in order to intervene appropriately. Moreover, children who are given extra support outside the classroom often need continued support in the regular classroom even after they are released successfully from an external support program. These children often remain vulnerable even after they have "caught up" with their peers. Ongoing special attention to children with persistent learning difficulties must take place in the regular classroom. Vigilance within the regular classroom is needed to support and maintain the gains they have made; and this must extend well beyond the primary grades.

In summary, there is overwhelming evidence that well-planned and executed intervention programs can improve the lives of young children and their families. Successful interventions are neither simple nor are they inexpensive. They require thoughtful planning and monitoring. Moreover, they require a highly qualified staff for successful implementation. There is a need to learn more about what it takes in resources and overall capability to improve the chances for successful outcomes from intervention programs that are both cost-effective and operationally effective in achieving well-defined goals.

See also: [🔗 Childhood](#); [🔗 Early childhood education](#); [🔗 Early Head Start](#); [🔗 Head Start](#); [🔗 Preschool](#); [🔗 School-based prevention](#)

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Eating Disorders

Janis H Crowther · Tricia M Leahey

The two most widely known eating disorders are bulimia nervosa and anorexia nervosa. Individuals with bulimia nervosa experience recurrent episodes of binge eating and use inappropriate compensatory strategies to counteract the weight gain associated with the binge episodes. Binge eating, a cardinal symptom of bulimia nervosa, involves the uncontrolled eating of a large amount of food in a given period of time, may be precipitated by restrained eating and negative emotions, and occurs, on average, twice a week in this disorder. There are two subtypes of bulimia nervosa: the purging type, which is distinguished by the regular use of self-induced vomiting or the misuse of laxatives, diuretics, enemas, or other medications; and the nonpurging type, distinguished by the use of fasting or excessive exercise.

Individuals with anorexia nervosa refuse to maintain a minimally normal body weight for their age and height while simultaneously experiencing an intense fear of weight gain or becoming fat. This fear of becoming fat occurs even though the individual with anorexia nervosa may have lost considerable weight and is very emaciated. When anorexia nervosa develops post-menarche, females also experience amenorrhea, which is defined as the absence of at least three consecutive menstrual cycles. Like bulimia nervosa, there also are two subtypes of anorexia nervosa: the restricting type, which is distinguished by the absence of regular bingeing or purging; and the binge-eating/purging type, distinguished by regular bingeing or purging using the methods identified above. Both bulimia nervosa and anorexia nervosa are accompanied by body image disturbance.

In 1994, a third eating disorder, binge eating disorder, was introduced as one of the disorders of eating in the Eating Disorder Not Otherwise Specified diagnostic category. Like bulimia nervosa, binge eating disorder is characterized by recurrent episodes of binge eating, over which individuals experience impaired control and considerable emotional distress. However, in contrast to individuals with bulimia nervosa, individuals with binge eating disorder do not use inappropriate compensatory behaviors, such as fasting, purging, or excessive exercise, on a regular basis.

Prevalence of Eating Disorders

Eating disorders are among the most common psychiatric disorders in girls and young women. According to the fourth edition of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* published by the American Psychiatric Association, the prevalence of bulimia nervosa ranges from 1% to 3%; of anorexia nervosa, approximately 0.5%; and of binge eating disorder, from approximately 1% to 4.0%, with higher rates of binge eating disorder among overweight and obese individuals and among those seeking treatment for weight loss. There are gender differences in the prevalence of anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa, with approximately 90% of all cases occurring among females.

The gender differences in binge eating disorder are less pronounced, with females about 1.5 times as likely to have this disorder as males. As these figures suggest, anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa are rare. However, there is some evidence emerging that suggests that binge eating disorder occurs at comparable rates among Black and White women. Anorexia nervosa typically begins during mid- to late adolescence, while bulimia nervosa and binge eating disorder have a slightly later age of onset, during late adolescence and young adulthood. Although not widely investigated, some evidence suggests that eating disturbances may have a later age of onset in some ethnic minority populations. Additional research is needed to investigate further the prevalence, onset, and natural course of eating disorders among ethnic minority groups.

Currently, there are no definitive data on the prevalence of eating disorders among ethnic minority populations. However, a recent review (see below) summarized the growing body of literature on ethnic group differences in the symptoms of eating disorders, including binge eating, various forms of dieting and severely

restrictive eating, and purging via self-induced vomiting or the use of laxatives or diuretics. Although the results vary slightly from study to study, the evidence that is emerging from this body of literature suggests that binge eating is reported at comparable levels among ethnic minority and White females. In the majority of studies, dieting is reported more frequently by White females than females from any other ethnic group, and purging is reported at comparable rates among females from ethnic groups and White females.

Risk and Protective Factors

Body image dissatisfaction is one of the most robust risk factors for eating disorders. Currently, among American and Westernized societies, the preference is for a very slender, almost prepubertal female figure, an ideal that is promoted by the media. Family members and peers may play an important role in transmitting this cultural ideal, also contributing to pressures to be thin. When girls and young women internalize the thin ideal, an ideal that may be difficult for them to attain, they may experience body dissatisfaction, which plays a central role in the development of severely restrictive dieting, some eating disturbances, and eating disorders.

It is generally recognized that culture plays a role in the importance ascribed to weight and shape in the definition of the ideal figure. Cross-culturally, there have been cultures and societies that value larger body sizes and do not consider a thin figure attractive. One factor that has been identified as a potential protective factor involves ethnic differences in the ideal body image. Other factors thought to be relevant among some ethnic minority populations include greater acceptance of more diverse body types and sizes, greater weight tolerance, and less emphasis on achieving acceptance via appearance-related attributes. Although additional research is needed, evidence suggests that the body ideal among Black and Latina women may be larger than that of White women and Black women report less body and weight dissatisfaction than their White peers. Findings such as these may partially explain the lower prevalence of eating disturbances in which severely restrictive eating or dieting play a role among ethnic minority populations. However, to the extent that women from some ethnic minority groups are heavier than White women and are more accepting of this larger body size, they may be at

increased risk for being overweight or obese and the health complications associated with these conditions.

Two factors unique to ethnic minority women that may affect the development of eating disturbances and eating disorders are acculturation and racial and ethnic discrimination. Acculturation is the process through which an individual adopts the values, norms, language, and behaviors of a dominant culture. There have been two competing hypotheses regarding the role of acculturation in the development of eating disorders among ethnic minority women. The first argues that greater acculturation is associated with an increased risk for eating disturbances and eating disorders. This may be the case if adolescent and young adult women in ethnic minority groups receive conflicting cultural messages regarding the beauty ideal or they feel pressure to adopt Western cultural values regarding ideal body shape and weight. The second argues that lower acculturation is associated with increased risk for eating disturbances and eating disorders, because the stress of adhering to traditional cultural values may place a young woman in conflict with the majority or dominant culture. A related view focuses on identity development, noting that conflict or confusion regarding one's identity, that may include one's culture's concept of the beauty ideal, may increase stress and lead to the development of eating disturbances and eating disorders. Ultimately, there may be several pathways to the development of eating disorders that differ by ethnicity, suggesting that it may be most important to understand the roles that acculturation, ethnic identity, and cultural conflict play within each ethnic minority group.

Racial and ethnic discrimination also may increase risk for the development of eating disturbances and eating disorders, although their effects are not well understood or widely investigated. Experiences with racism and discrimination are very stressful events that often are perceived as outside of the individual's control and precipitate negative emotions. One line of thinking is that eating disturbances may develop as a maladaptive way of coping with these experiences. In this context, eating symptoms, such as binge eating or purging, may function to distract the individual, if only temporarily, from the stressful experience, to reduce tension or other negative emotions, to numb pain, or to soothe or comfort the individual.

There are promising treatments for eating disorders. For example, one of the most widely investigated forms of therapy for bulimia nervosa is cognitive behavior therapy. One major concern among mental health

professionals is that eating disorders among women from ethnic minority groups are underdiagnosed and, as a result, often do not receive treatment. In part, this may be due to the belief that eating disorders exist primarily among Western, non-Hispanic, White adolescent and young adult women, particularly from the middle to upper socioeconomic classes. To the extent that ethnic minority women are underrepresented among women seeking treatment for their eating disorders, it is not clear whether this reflects a failure on the part of clinicians to accurately diagnose and assess eating disorders among ethnic minority populations, the underutilization of mental health services by ethnic minority members, the absence of culturally sensitive treatment programs for eating disturbances and eating disorders among ethnic minority populations, or some combination of these factors.

See also: [● Acculturation](#); [● Discrimination](#)

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Ebonics

Meghan Nichols Taylor

African American Vernacular English (AAVE), also called Black English Vernacular or Ebonics as it is colloquially known, is a type variety (dialect, ethnolect, and sociolect) of the American English language. AAVE shares many characteristics with various Creole English dialects spoken by Black people in many parts

of the world. It also has grammatical origins and pronunciation characteristics that are common with various West African languages. AAVE is most commonly thought to have pronunciation similar to that of Southern American English.

AAVE's development is traced back to the trans-Atlantic African slave trade, but also has features of sixteenth and seventeenth century English spoken in Great Britain and Ireland. To communicate with themselves and their captors, multilingual populations of African captives developed pidgins or simplified mixtures of two or more languages. Over time, some of these pidgins became fully developed creoles in the Americas and continue to be spoken by some today.

The traits of AAVE that separate it from Standard American English (SAE) include: differences in the use of tenses, grammatical structures that can be traced to West African languages, and changes in pronunciation along definable patterns, many of which are found in creoles and dialects of other populations of West African descent. AAVE's resistance to assimilation into Southern American English or more standard dialects is a result of cultural differences between Blacks and Whites. Language becomes a means of self-differentiation that helps forge group identity and solidarity. AAVE has survived through the centuries also as a result of various degrees of isolation from Southern American English and SAE through self-segregation from and marginalization by mainstream society.

Many speakers of Ebonics are bidialectal—where they use both SAE and varying degrees of AAVE. In most cases, the degree of exclusive use of AAVE decreases with the rise in socioeconomic status, although almost all speakers of AAVE at all socioeconomic levels readily understand SAE. Many Blacks, regardless of socioeconomic status, educational background, or geographic region, use some form of AAVE to various degrees in intra-ethnic and informal communication. A stereotype is that AAVE is often perceived by people of mainstream American society as a language spoken by people who are uneducated. Among linguists, however, there is no such controversy, since AAVE, like all other dialects, shows consistent internal logic and structure.

One of the largest educational debates regarding Ebonics was a resolution from the Oakland California school board on December 18, 1996 that wanted Ebonics to be officially recognized as a language or dialect. At its last meeting, the Oakland school board unanimously passed the resolution before stepping down

from their positions to the newly elected board that held different political views. The new board modified the resolution and then dropped it. Had the new board decided to continue with the resolution, it would have affected funding and education-related issues. The Oakland resolution declared that Ebonics was *not* English, and it was not an Indo-European language. They claimed that the speech of Black children belonged to West and Niger-Congo African Language Systems, however, this claim was quickly ruled inconsistent with current linguistic theory, that AAVE is a dialect of English and therefore of Indo-European origin.

Proponents of Ebonics instruction in public education affirm that their proposals have been distorted by political debate and misunderstood by the general public. Their underlying belief is that some Black students may perform better in school and more easily learn SAE if textbooks and teachers acknowledged that AAVE was not a substandard version of SAE but rather a legitimate speech variety with its own grammatical rules and pronunciation norms.

See also: [Cross-cultural learning styles](#); [Language proficiency](#)

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Ecology

Cheryl Danzy · Velma LaPoint ·
Jo-Anne Manswell Butty · Charlynn Small

Children are reared in multiple contexts that influence their development—families, schools, peers, faith-based organizations, media, marketplace, workplace, and other broader socioeconomic, political, and cultural settings. Ecology refers to these settings and interactions between these multiple and interrelated settings that influence and shape human behavior. With origins in the biological sciences, ecology initially referred to the study of interactions and relationships among all living organisms.

In the twentieth century, social scientists recognized that humans interact with one another in specific ways that have an impact on one another. It was deemed necessary to study human interaction in a separate field, and, hence, the origin of the field of human ecology. Human ecologists are interested in studying the complex ways that humans interact within and across these ecological settings.

Particularly applicable to educators and school psychologists is the work of a prominent human ecologist and developmental psychologist, Urie Bronfenbrenner, who examined child development from an ecological framework. He theorized that, in addition to being shaped by bioecological factors, children develop in five distinct, but interrelated contexts: *microsystem*—the context that most directly has an impact on the child and is comprised of the immediate surroundings such as caregiver settings and households, neighborhoods, and schools; *mesosystem*—which is comprised of the structures that connect aspects of the microsystem (e.g., primary caregiver interaction with formal educators); *exosystem*, which is comprised of the larger contexts that have an impact on the child, but are settings where a child has no direct interaction (e.g., caregiver workplace settings and community resources); *macrosystem*—which is comprised of cultural norms, values, laws and societal expectations; and *chronosystem*—which is the time in which a child exists. Connections and interactions between and among each of the multiple contexts work together to shape children's knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, and worldviews. Children's ecologies are not only immediate surroundings and the areas in which a child has direct interaction, but rather, the sum of all contexts that shape persons with which children interact.

Many child development researchers and practitioners, especially those conducting research and working with ethnic minority children, have found that ecological settings are not always facilitative of children's development and well-being. Many ecological settings are replete with structural barriers and inequalities in areas such as education, housing, healthcare where there are major disparities among European American children and ethnic minority children. Individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds must often learn to navigate between mainstream American culture, which may negate their culture and their own cultural norms. While these structural barriers may exist, ethnic minority children often learn optimal coping skills and develop resiliency skills,

which often emanates from their parents, family members, community members, and other stakeholders who provide supportive networks, resources, and systemic change in an effort to provide for children's optimal development.

Historically, some educational, psychological, and human service practitioners viewed ethnic minority children's development and their culture from a deficit perspective. Thus, children who may have exhibited maladaptive behavior or learning problems were often viewed as having behavioral problems that resided with children themselves or their families. However, current and emerging research and practice, with the impetus coming from the growing ethnic diversity of child and family populations, educational, psychological, and human service providers, are using ecological frameworks and related research findings on children's development, especially among ethnic minority groups, to guide their assessments and treatment modalities. By incorporating the ecological contexts of children and families of diverse cultures, school psychologists are poised to better understand and more effectively serve an increasingly ethnically and economically diverse body of children and their families.

See also: [Community interventions with diverse youth](#); [Community psychology](#); [Community violence](#); [Home, Family, School liaison](#); [Home-school partnerships](#); [School counselor](#); [School psychologist](#)

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Education

Linda S Behar-Horenstein · Alice Dix

Demographic Profile of Ethnic/Minority Students

According to the National Center for Education Statistics, public school enrollment reached approximately 48.3 million students in 2004. The projected enrollment for 2014 is 50.0 million students. The percentage of racial and ethnic minority students who are enrolled in public schools continues to increase as greater numbers of sociocultural and linguistically diverse students enter the United States (U.S.) or are born here. In 1972, 22% of public school students were from a racial or ethnic minority group. In 2003, this figure was 42%, largely due to an increase in Hispanic enrollment.

The number of racial and ethnic minority students in public schools has dramatically increased from kindergarten through grade 12 (approximately ages 5 through seventeen). White students comprised 58% of all public school students in 2003 compared with 78% of the total public school students in 1972. Black students comprised 16% of all public school students in 2003, up only 1% from 1972. (The term “Black” will be used throughout these pages to be consistent with statistics presented by the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute for Education Sciences.) Hispanic students comprised 19% of all public school students in 2003 compared to only 6% in 1972. (The term “Hispanic” will be used throughout these pages to be consistent with statistics presented by the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute for Education Sciences.) Students characterized as other made up 7% of all public school students in 2003 compared to only 1% in 1972. Percentages were not specified for Asian/Pacific Islander or Native American students.

In the last two decades there have been substantial changes in the numbers of ethnic/minority students living within the Northeast, Midwest, South, and Western regions of the U.S. The most notable and dramatic change in racial/ethnic minority student body group representation occurred in the West. For instance, in 1972, the public schools in the West consisted of 73% White students, but this decreased to 46% in 2003. Black students in the West declined from 6% in 1972

to 5% in 2003. The most significant increase occurred among Hispanic students who made up 15% of all public school students in the West, however Hispanic students accounted for 36% in 2003. Students in the other category were 6% in 1972 and 13% in 2003.

The Northeast experienced less notable changes in the percentages of minority student enrollments. White students accounted for 81% of all students in 1972, but only 65% in 2003. Black students were 12% of all students in 1972 and increased to 16% in 2003. Hispanic students in the Northeast accounted for only 6% of all students in 1972, but this increased to 14% in 2003. Students in the category of other were only 1% in 1972, but this increased dramatically to 5% in 2003.

The Midwest also experienced noteworthy changes in minority enrollment. White students accounted for 88% of all students in the Midwest in 1972 and decreased to 74% in 2003. Black students accounted for 11% in 1972 and increased to 14% in 2003. Hispanic students in 1972 were 2% of all students in the Midwest, but this figured tripled to 6% in 2003. Students classified as other made up 2% of Midwest students in 1972 and 5% in 2003.

The South had some racial/ethnic groups that remained constant between 1972 and 2003 while others changed drastically. White students in 1972 accounted for 70% of all students in the South in 1972. This number dropped in 2003 so that White students accounted for only 54% of all students. The percentage of Black students remained constant between 1972 and 2003 at 25%. The percentage of Hispanic students in the South increased between 1972 and 2003 from 5 to 17%. Students classified as other accounted for 1% of all students in the South in 1972, but this rose in 2003 to 5% of all students.

Dropout Rates

As of October 2002, students between the ages of 16 and 24 who dropped out of high school, or did not achieve high school diploma equivalency, (GED) have shown an alarming increase. The total dropout rate for all U.S. students was 10.5%. Hispanics had a dropout rate of 25.7% and accounted for 42.3% of all dropouts. Black students had a dropout rate of 11.3% and accounted for 15.1% of all dropouts. Asian/Pacific Islander reported a dropout rate of 3.9%, overall 1.7% of the total number of dropouts. A rate of 6.5% among Whites accounted for 39.2% among all dropouts.

Although the exact reasons that youth dropout of school is not clear, there are several indicators that are clearly related to this problem. Family income level is a good indicator of factors affecting a students' choice to dropout of school. Students in households with lower income levels have less resources provided to them to assist in their education or may feel compelled to leave school and get a job to help with the family's financial situation.

Another reason concerns the issue of language. Students who are not as able to successfully communicate in English have a higher risk of dropping out of school. Hispanic students represent the highest dropout percentage and this group also represents the highest percentage of students who admit to speaking English "not well" or "not at all." This language barrier is a large contributor to the dropout rate of Hispanic students.

Other indicators of dropout rates include the age and geographic region where a student lives. Students who are pursuing their high school diploma beyond the traditional ages of high school students are more likely to drop out. This may also relate to the need older students feel to enter the workforce to gain an income. It is also possible that perhaps these students feel embarrassed because they are older.

Students living in certain geographic regions of the country constitute a higher dropout rate than students in other areas. Some of the differences according to region can be contributed to where greater percentages of ethnic minority students reside. An area with a greater percentage of Hispanic students will show a greater percentage of dropouts because of the fact that Hispanic students represent the greatest number of dropouts. Although no one definitive reason can explain the trends of dropout students in different regions of the country, it is clear that students in the South represent the greatest percentage of dropouts.

Students in Lower-Income or Poverty-Stricken Families

The National School Lunch Program provides free or reduced lunches to students who meet specific income limitation limits. Students are eligible for free lunches if the family income level is below 130% of the annual poverty level. They are eligible for the reduced price lunch (they cannot be charged more than 40 cents for lunch) if their family's income level is 130–185% below

the poverty level. As of 2005, 41% of all students in fourth grade were eligible for free or reduced lunches in the U.S. Of all fourth grade White students, 24% were eligible for free or reduced lunches compared to 70% of Blacks. Seventy-three percent of Hispanic fourth grade students were eligible for free and reduced lunches. Thirty-three percent of Asian/Pacific Islander and 65% of American Indian (including Alaskan natives) of all fourth grade students were eligible for free or reduced lunches.

Special Education

According to the U.S. Department of Education, in 2000, approximately 3.9 million or 8% of all public school children in kindergarten through grade 12 were classified as having disabilities, including mental retardation, emotional disturbance, or a specific learning disability. Most students were classified as having a specific learning disability (2.8 million), mental retardation (647,000) and an emotional disturbance (438,000). The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires that children with disabilities receive free and appropriate education. This act originally came into being in October 1990, but has been amended on a few occasions and as recently as 2004.

In 2000, almost twice as many male students as female students were classified as having a disability. Approximately 11% of male students and 6% of female students were classified with a disability. Individual percentages were reported for five racial/ethnicity groups. American Indians including Alaska Natives reported having approximately 10% of students with disability compared to 3% of Asian/Pacific Islanders, including Native Hawaiians. Black students reported having approximately 11% of students classified with a disability. Whites and Hispanic students reported having approximately 8% of their students with a disability. Black students classified with a disability accounted for 22% of all students classified with a disability, however the National Center for Educational Statistics reported that this figure was larger than the 17% of the total public school students that Black students accounted for in 2000.

Overall, there is a disproportional representation of Black students with a disability when compared to all students with a disability. The disproportional representation of Black students with a disability may be, in part, due to the local, state, and district level policies

that encourage the identification and placement of children in special education without questioning the cultural profiles and cultural implications that children bring to the learning process. Another reason for the over-representation of Black students with a disability may be teachers' beliefs and preferences for what constitutes achievement and success in the U.S. Practices that are in place in schools and classrooms in which teachers prefer certain kinds of behaviors and certain academic learning styles over other may also contribute to the disproportional representation of Black students with a disability.

English as a Second Language Learners

Students of different racial and ethnic groups who do not speak English as their first language require additional instruction services. Children between the ages of 5 and 17 who spoke a language other than English at home more than doubled between 1979 and 2003. In 2003, 19% of students spoke a language other than English at home compared to 9% in 1979. Students who spoke a language other than English at home and spoke English with difficulty increased from 3 to 5% from 1979 to 2003. Among languages other than English being spoken at home, Spanish was reported to be the most common. Rates for speaking a language other than English at home varied among different regions of the U.S. The West reported the largest percent of children, 31%, who spoke a language other than English at home compared to 19% in the Northeast, 16% in the Midwest, and 10% in the South. Among Black and White students, 5% of each group reported speaking a language other than English at home compared to 19% of American Indians. Asian/Pacific Islander and Hispanic groups reported the largest percentages of children speaking a language other than English at home with 65 and 68%, respectively. Only 1% of White and Black students reported speaking a language other than English at home and having difficulty speaking English, compared to 18% of Asian/Pacific Islander students and 21% of Hispanic students.

Teachers and staff who provide services to English as a Second Language (ESL) students report that it can be difficult to serve so many students. It can be even more difficult to help an ESL student who may speak a language that no one in the school is comfortable with. For students speaking languages other than Spanish,

resources in the public school system are scarce. Although special testing accommodations are provided to ESL students, this practice continues to be a concern with the large number of ESL students and few available staff who can help them.

Educational Attainment among Ethnic/Minority Students

The percentage of all racial and ethnic minority groups in the U.S. graduating high school is increasing. Approximately 87% of all 25- to 29-year olds in the U.S. reported completing high school and receiving their diploma in 2003 compared to 78% in 1972. In 2003, 88% Black students between the ages of 25 and 29 completed high school, up from 59% in 1972. Approximately 62% of Hispanics completed high school in 2003, compared to 48% in 1972. According to the U.S. Department of Education, Hispanic students are not closing the achievement gap with Whites as quickly as Black students. Findings based on self-report data are included for 25- to 29-year olds who reported completing some college or a bachelor's degree as of 2003. White students who completed at least some college were approximately 63%, while the total of all students completing some college was approximately 59%. Approximately 35% of White students in the U.S. completed a bachelor's degree compared to approximately 28% of the total U.S. students who completed a bachelor's degree. Approximately 50% of Black students completed some college while approximately 18% completed their bachelor's degree. Among Hispanics, 30% completed some college compared to almost 10% completing their bachelor's degree.

Barriers to Achievement among Diverse Students

There are many factors that mitigate success achievement and completion of high school equivalency among diverse students. Most notable among these factors is the persistent Eurocentric approach to education that places children at risk for academic failure. Because public education relies heavily on the values of dominant conservative class views, there is often a disconnection between the home and school cultures for racial/ethnic minority children. Often, minority students are forced to negotiate between the school

world and their home worlds without support or educators' awareness. This is an unresolved issue in education that may set minority groups upon a trajectory of academic failure and increase their susceptibility to factors such as excessive discipline referrals, school suspensions and expulsions, grade retention, and low academic achievement. Reports from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicate that as early as third grade, for instance, African American students demonstrated significantly lower performance in reading, math, and science as compared to their White, Latino/as, and Asian/Pacific Islander peers.

It is important to recognize the socio-political conditions that determine the accessibility to educational materials, resources, as well as the aesthetics of the learning environment. In addition, there are differences between how students socially construct knowledge and learning within and outside of the school. Educators who theorize about the usefulness of multiculturalism in education debate the belief that education and knowledge are non-neutral terrains. For example, some renowned multicultural theorists such as Banks, Grant and Lei have challenged the cultural hegemony that predominates the U.S. curriculum.

Bilingual programs that integrate language and culture into their curriculum have also been criticized for segregating bilingual students from fluent-English speaking peers and for restricting opportunities for second-language acquisition. Those who advocate for English-only instruction argue for a rapid placement into mainstream classrooms. Bilingual education advocates support a two-way immersion approach. It is important, however, to point out that not all bilingual education programs are the same. For example, there are maintenance bilingual models and transitional bilingual programs. Maintenance bilingual models, also referred to as Two-Way Immersions (TWI) are believed to be more consistent with educational approaches that maximize social, cognitive, and academic benefits. These programs typically use both languages for the duration of the program and are usually implemented at the elementary level. These programs are taught to majority and minority students simultaneously, so they avoid segregation, they aim for high levels of biliteracy and bilingualism. A balanced group of native majority and native minority language speakers are used for instruction. There are varied program designs for implementation. The most common are 90/10 and 50/50 TWI approaches. In the 90/10 design students receive literacy development in

their native language until third grade when English literacy is introduced. In the 50/50 approach, students receive literacy instruction simultaneously in both languages. Transitional bilingual education programs are short-term, ranging from 2 to 3 years. In these programs the native language is used as bridge to learn English. Transitional bilingual education programs have been criticized for being subtractive and assimilationist.

While all students are influenced by current trends in education such as mandated state testing, ethnic minority children, especially those from low-income families, experience multiple challenges that their middle class White counterparts may not face.

Disproportionality in the achievement of non-traditional ethno-cultural groups within schools is fundamental to culturally appropriate pedagogy. This framework proposes that children, apart from their socio-economic background, are marginalized in culturally assaultive classrooms that fail to recognize or affirm their cultural values and beliefs. This framework theorizes that minority students arrive in the school environment with a set of unique and legitimate ways of being that are cognitively, linguistically, and behaviorally different from White middle-class norms. From the viewpoint of culturally appropriate pedagogy, school failure is attributed to the cultural incompatibility of the schooling environment, such as structure, content, curriculum, teaching practices, materials, assessment practices, and organization.

Overcoming Barriers to Sociocultural and Linguistically Diverse Student Achievement

An increasing body of research demonstrates that family involvement is crucial to influencing students' academic achievement. Family structures and processes strongly influence children's academic success. Student academic and social competence improves when schools, families, and communities work together to promote student success. Parent involvement enhances student learning and achievement. In addition, improvement in language and literacy skills, acceptable school attendance, and reduction in grade retention have been shown.

All families have stressors that pull them in multiple directions in a fast-paced society. School personnel must consider the question of resources in work with

low income families. Parents' time and energy for involvement is often influenced by the fact, that their work schedule often requires long or unpredictable hours. Low income families may have less access to professional support.

Low income families may avoid school involvement when school personnel make unwarranted assumptions about their level of participation. Also, teachers sometimes assume that low income families lack the ability, interest, skills, time, motivation, or knowledge to participate. Moreover, traditional school practices tend to ignore the non-economic assets that families have. Often families are characterized as fitting into the Euro American lifestyle or they are presumed deficient. Many schools continue to perpetuate the norms, practices, and values of families that fit into the Euro American culture. Moving away from a deficit model of instruction so that educators and school personnel see children within the context of their families, communities and other social systems may permit schools to see the assets and needs that sociocultural and linguistically diverse students bring to school.

The centrality of families has been recognized as a crucial component to student achievement. National educational goals have identified family and schools as partners as vital to the prevention of school failure among students. To create a culture of success, school personnel need to recognize that an unwillingness or inability to communicate is at the core of school failure. They may consider what practices can be altered to remedy this problem so that they can ensure the healthy cognitive, social and emotional development of children.

School structures and practices can be developed to enhance parent-school relationships. For example, letting parents know that they are welcome, insuring that they are informed about their child's progress and that school personnel respect them communicates that their concerns and suggestions are essential to forging these relationships. The principal plays a central role in establishing the school climate and sets the tone for parental involvement and program implementation. They also empower teachers and parents to reach for effective involvement. To ameliorate barriers that families may feel, the principal needs to describe the issues, needs and constraints faced by educators in the school building.

Changing assumptions about school practices might begin as educators and administrators, ask how current school practices systematically include or exclude families and how practices can change to communicate

a desire to include all families. To answer this question, the principal and teachers can audit the school handbook and archived newsletters and letters sent out by teachers and school staff to assess the tone of the writing and determine whether these communications are inviting or distancing. Improving the education of children from sociocultural and linguistically diverse families can also result when school staff displays positive attitudes toward their families. This practice is particularly important to empowering parents and to working with families effectively.

Family-school discourse can be altered to enfranchise parents as equal partners. Beth Harry (1992) suggested that educators and administrators could provide ways for reciprocal rather than one-way interactions to engage in dialogue rather than monologue. Based upon her own ethnographic study of 12 Puerto Rican families and their children who received English as a second language instruction and services for mild disabilities, she suggested ways to engage parents in meaning involvement. Her recommendations include placing parents in active roles during conferences where school professionals could draw upon parent expertise and utilize a parent's understanding of his/her child's experiences and cultural aspects in ways that might help them better understand the child's development, behavior, and ways of learning. During these conversations, school personnel can convey that parent involvement is valued and needed.

Parents whose cultural backgrounds differ from the mainstream within the school district places them at distinct disadvantages by creating socio-cultural borders. Equalizing the balance of power between parents and educators, allows them to co-construct a bigger picture about the conditions of the child's life concerning learning and development. In addition, examining the way that families and educators currently connect and then altering existing structures to ensure that there is a shared responsibility for students, parents, and educators is one way to build trust and communication. For example, homework has been identified as one indicator of successful schools and successful students. Involving parents in student's homework is one way to encourage students to spend more time completing assignments with higher quality work and promote positive communication between parent and child. Involving parents in this manner reinforces the importance of schoolwork, stimulates conversations between parents and family members and students about

students learning and may bring parents and children together as they exchange ideas.

Principal leadership is vital as principals establish school priorities, direct the allocation of funding, and establish and influence the attitudes and morale of school staff. In addition, principal leadership and support are probably the most influential factors in determining a school's capacity to implement new programs. Thus, if a principal asserts that involving families as partners with school personnel is a priority within the structure and function of school life, this message calls for immediate school-wide attention. Principals can set expectations for meaningful family participation by establishing the tone for interactions, providing opportunities for sustained positive interactions between families and educators, and modeling positive communication with all families. For example, holding bi-weekly breakfasts with grade level teachers can increase the interaction between students, parents, and educators in a relaxed environment. Principals can also advocate ensuring that system-level policies are enacted to support strong family-school interactions. Schools must work to overcome the challenges that often make involvement for low income and socio-cultural and linguistically diverse families difficult.

It is important that principals acknowledge their influence. The principal's vision permeates throughout all facets of the school community. If the principal believes that all children can learn and this is a fundamental belief of educational philosophy, then teachers throughout the school may begin to rally their support and instructional practices. Rather than accepting the cultural hegemony that typifies public educationally practices, it is important to consider the various ways that children learn. To ensure the success of children in the school community, it is important that educators at all levels become attuned to the preferred modes of processing and perceiving within each individual child. When students are taught in ways that match their learning styles, outcomes are likely to be higher than when teaching modes are in contrast to their natural learning style. However, it is also important to balance this approach with teaching in modes where students have less dexterity so they can increase their ability to learn in varied ways.

For public school education to be truly successful for all students, teaching and learning need to become an explicit process whereby teachers carefully explain to students how they plan to teach, what they plan to teach and why, and what they want students to demonstrate, do, or change, as a result of classroom

experiences. Each party in the teaching-learning process has specific tasks to accomplish. When these tasks are not clearly articulated and/or exemplified in ways that ensure students have a cognitive or visual understanding, the possibility exists that students will not learn what is taught. Developing flexible educational plans tailored to each student, providing smaller schools, decreasing bureaucratic oversight, de-emphasizing legislated accountability, placing more emphasis on equity in assessment, helping students discover how they learn best, how to study, and how to adapt their skills in challenging learning environments are key components for the next wave of educational reform.

See also: [Educational partnership](#); [Ethnic minority youth](#); [Individuals with Disabilities Education Act \(IDEA\)](#); [Principals](#)

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Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975

DeAnn Lechtenberger

In 1975, the United States (U.S.) Congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, also known as Public Law 94-142. This historic legislation was implemented in the public schools in October of 1977 once federal regulations were finalized. States receiving federal funds were required to comply with six federal mandates.

1. Zero Reject specifically mandates that all children, regardless of ability, be guaranteed a free and appropriate public education (FAPE). School districts were mandated to serve children ages 6-17

(and ages 3-5 and 18-21 if the state also educated nondisabled children in those age groups).

2. Nondiscriminatory Identification and Evaluation was guaranteed to address practices that often resulted in the misidentification and placement of individuals into special education (i.e., culturally and linguistically diverse learners). A number of essential safeguards were also established including the use of assessments that would be: (a) administered in a child's primary language, (b) given by qualified evaluation personnel, (c) individualized to assess specific areas of need, (d) consisting of more than one procedure, (e) selected so as not to discriminate against the child's disability, and (f) directed by a multidisciplinary team in all areas related to the suspected disability.
3. An Individualized Education Program (IEP) is required for each student with an identified disability who qualifies for special education and/or related services. This plan will be developed by the IEP team, which consists of the parents, school personnel, and the identified child, if appropriate. The IEP must include information that identifies: (a) the student's present levels of educational performance, (b) measurable annual goals including short term objectives, (c) objective criteria and evaluation procedures, (d) specific special education and related services, (e) percentage of the school day the student is in general education and an explanation of non-participation, (f) modifications to the general education classroom, (g) projected dates for beginning and the duration of services, and (h) annual evaluation of progress made on the IEP. This team may be convened at any time, but must meet a minimum of once a school year.
4. Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) is the component of PL 94-142 that mandates that children with disabilities, including students in public or private schools or other care facilities, are to be educated, to the maximum extent that is appropriate, with children who are not disabled. Special classes, separate school facilities or other removal of children with disabilities from the regular educational environment may take place only when the nature or severity of the disability requires the use of supplementary aids and services that cannot be provided in a satisfactory manner within a general or regular educational setting with non-disabled peers. The overall goal and philosophy behind this component is to have children with disabilities participate in

regular education classrooms as is feasible and appropriate for each child.

5. Due Process is a system of safeguards put in place to ensure the rights of students with disabilities and their families. These procedures include: (a) written parental permission for evaluation, (b) written parental permission for placement in special education, (c) parental rights to review and question their child's records, (d) parental right to an independent educational evaluation for their child, (e) parents (and school officials) have a right to a due process hearing, to present evidence, to have a lawyer present, and to call and confront witnesses, (f) parents and school officials have the right to appeal, and (g) confidentiality of student information is assured.
6. Parental Participation stipulates that parents of children with disabilities have the right to be included in decisions regarding evaluation, placement, and IEP development for their child. Parents are also given the right to access their child's educational records at any time. School personnel are highly encouraged to communicate and work collaboratively with family members in all decisions regarding their children.

See also: 🔗 [National Information Center for Children and Youth with Disabilities \(NICHCY\)](#); 🔗 [Parent Advocacy Coalition for Educational Rights \(PACER Center\)](#); 🔗 [Individualized Education Plan \(IEP\)](#); 🔗 [Inclusion](#); 🔗 [Individuals with Disabilities Education Act \(IDEA\)](#); 🔗 [Special education](#)

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Suggested Resources

Houghton Mifflin Student Resource Center—http://college.hmco.com/education/resources/res_prof/students/spec_ed/legislation/pl_94-142.html: This website provides an overview and analysis of the Education of All Handicapped Children Act.

Education Funding

Brian Lack

The United States (U.S.) spends more than \$700 billion each year on education. Although there is some degree of variance among states, the federal government provides roughly 7–10% of this funding, with state and local districts providing the rest. Schools may receive additional funding through local donations from parents, corporate sponsors, and foundations, although the amount is generally nominal in comparison. Generally, about 60% of school budgets are spent on classroom instruction (e.g., teachers, materials). The remaining 40% is generally distributed as follows: 12% for instructional support (curriculum and staff development); 11% for operating and maintaining school facilities; and 11% on administrative services; and 6% on food and transportation services. The standard unit of funding analysis is the per-pupil expenditure, or how much money, on average, a school district spends on each student. In 2002–2003, the U.S. Department of Education reported that the national median per-pupil expenditure was \$7,574. The U.S. spends more on public schooling each year than any other country in the world.

School districts generally take into account the diversity of student needs when appropriating funds to schools. Students are weighted on the basis of individual needs because some students simply cost more to educate. For instance, because of the need for smaller classes, counseling, and special technology, a visually impaired student may require costs up to five times more than the regular education student who does not require such additional accommodations. This concept is often called “vertical equity,” because fairness is defined as imparting unequal resources to unequal students. “Horizontal equity,” on the other hand, is the opposite: allocating equal resources to students with unequal needs. Nearly every state in the U.S. employs the doctrine of horizontal equity in foundational grant funding, which is the minimum amount of funding that each student is to receive, before taking into account special differences.

Early school reformers were leery of allowing state governments too much control over education budgets and policy decisions (ironically, as the number of schools has increased over the last 150 years, the number of school districts has plummeted—contradicting

the traditional value of decentralized school governance). Since the advent of the common school, local property taxes have constituted a major source of funding for public schools. Because of this, school funding is inextricably linked to politics. Because property values and tax rates obviously vary geographically—in addition to the fact that nearly 10% of students nationwide attend private schools—school funding has been one of the more politically controversial issues surrounding schooling in the U.S.

Jonathan Kozol’s *Savage Inequalities* published in 1991 provided a vivid exposé of how arcane funding formulas and widespread ignorance about the problems caused by the reliance on local property taxes have led to large disparities in per pupil expenditures. In many cases, for example, a particular school will receive twice the amount of funding per student than another school just a few miles down the road (in another school district). However egregious or benign one may render such differences, litigation is inevitable, for the notion of spending differences is inherently a political problem. Plaintiffs have battled state legislatures through the court system over school funding disparities since the 1960s, [*Serrano v. Priest* (1971) and *Rodriguez v. San Antonio* (1973) were two watershed cases], mostly over “equity” concerns or nominal differences in per-pupil spending.

Since the late 1980s, a slightly different argument, known as the “adequacy” approach, which actually condones differences in spending per pupil, as long as inputs are related to educational need. Education elites have debated over how to define, or measure, an adequate education, and in spite of their efforts, state education clauses and political climate often make the most significant impact on how adequacy is measured. Another problem facing school funding reform is political will to change. Since court systems can only mandate rather than prescribe change, and policymaking power falls within the purview of the state legislature, policy action and implementation sometimes become political quagmires.

Since the 1960s, school funding has maintained an incessant tenure on the education reform agenda, and today is inextricably linked to the modern school improvement effort that specifically espouses school choice and accountability.

See also: [Accountability](#); [Class size](#); [Special education](#); [Vouchers](#)

Suggested Reading

- Carr, M. C., & Fuhrman, S. H. (1999). The politics of school finance in the 1990s. In H. F. Ladd, R. Chalk, & J. S. Hansen (Eds.), *Equity and adequacy in education finance: Issues and perspectives*. (pp 136–174). Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Hanushek, E. A. (2003). The failure of input-based schooling policies. *Economic Journal* 113, 64–69.
- Kozol, J. (1991). *Savage inequalities: Children in America's schools*. New York: Harper.
- Monk, D. H., & Plecki, M. L. (1999). Generating and managing resources for school improvement. In J. Murphy, & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration*, (2nd ed.) (pp 491–509). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Suggested Resources

- National Center for Education Statistics—<http://nces.ed.gov/edfin>: This website contains a dynamic array of historical statistics and studies concerning public school funding in the U.S.
- National Center for Education Statistics-Litigation—<http://nces.ed.gov/edfin/litigation>: This website offers a history and brief details of school funding court cases since the 1960s.

Educational Partnership

Jack A Cummings · Charles R Ridley

An educational partnership is a relationship between two or more parties to solve an educational problem. Universities, businesses, community agencies, private foundations, service clubs, faith-based organizations, media groups, and parent organizations may collaborate with schools to form educational partnerships. School-based counselors, psychologists, and social workers also may form educational partnerships with teachers, principals, and parents. Thus, educational partnerships may include links to groups outside the school as well as within school networks. These partnerships develop when individuals and/or groups share a common goal. Partners share a perception that their collaboration will take advantage of opportunities to solve a significant problem. They also share the perception that the problem solving is either impossible or more difficult without the collaboration.

Tushnet is an author who analyzed educational partnerships funded by the United States (U.S.) Office

of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI). She noted that although educational partnerships may take different forms, such partnership entities are often characterized by a number of salient features. First, communication among the partners and to the larger community is paramount. Critical stakeholders communicate early, focus on the goals of the group, and address operational details such as delegating work and internally advertising new services. Second, educational partnerships often allocate resources to those individuals who are the targets of change. The allocated resources take the form of time and training. Two additional characteristics are also common in successful partnerships; the inclusion of evaluative practices and confronting problems by using them as an opportunity for positive change. Evaluations are essential for determining the effectiveness of partnerships, while positive change usually does not occur without confrontation.

Involving parents and caregivers in the education of their children represents an important opportunity that too often is lost due to the disconnection between school and home. Parent involvement is often low, and the flow of information is typically one-sided—from school to home. Christenson is an author who has written extensively on family-school partnerships. She has noted that linguistic and cultural differences between home and school impede progress toward family-school partnerships. Parents may lack knowledge of ways they can support their children. They may have different expectations. They may have had negative experiences in their own schooling. They may have limited time due to work obligations. And in cases of immigrant children, parents may lack knowledge of the educational system. To have successful partnerships, Christenson advocates meeting parents “where they are.” To do this, one must understand their needs, goals, and availability. Understanding the effects of cultural and social capital in relation to the notion of supporting families to be engaged at school and with learning is integral to our success for partnering.

Other authors offer important insights on establishing school, family, and community partnerships. A key part of the process is the identification of current services, personnel, leadership, infrastructure, and social capital. The authors take an asset-focused approach to mapping resources. This contrasts with a deficit-focused approach where the emphasis is on developing a prioritized list of deficiencies or problems. Mapping assets leads to an understanding

of redundancies, gaps in services, and opportunities for collaboration.

See also: ➤ *Community psychology*; ➤ *Community interventions with diverse youth*

Suggested Reading

- Adelman, H. S., & Taylor, L. (2006). *The school leader's guide to student learning supports: New directions for addressing barriers to learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Christenson, S. L. (2004). The family-school partnership: An opportunity to promote the learning competence of all students. *School Psychology Review*, 33, 83–104.
- Tushnet, N. C. (1993). *A guide to developing educational partnerships*. Retrieved November 29, 2006, from http://eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2/content_storage_01/0000000b/80/23/3a/9d.pdf

Educational Resilience

Samantha Francois · Stacy Overstreet

Literature and research that examine the educational attainment of culturally and economically diverse students have documented the frequent challenges faced by these youth in United States (U.S.) school systems. The markers of academic failure such as high retention and drop out rates, lower grades, lower standardized test scores, and increases in behavioral problems are more frequently reported among ethnic minority youth, particularly those from low-income families. However, research has also examined resilience among ethnic minority youth where resilience is defined as academic success within the context of environments characterized by significant risk. Such educational resilience is not a fixed attribute associated with ability or an individual's personality traits, but rather is fostered by attenuating risk factors in youth and their surroundings.

Factors on all systemic levels can place youth at risk for academic challenges; more specifically, poverty, racism, and racial stereotypes can act as risk contributors to the academic success of ethnic minority youth from low-income backgrounds in particular. However, many research studies have demonstrated

that factors in the home (e.g., parental involvement, perceived parent support), school (e.g., perceived teacher support, physical environment of the classroom), and community (e.g., perceived support from members of the community, involvement in structured neighborhood-based activities) buffer the impact of these risk contributors, thereby promoting resilience in youth.

Risk Factors and Challenges

Ethnic minority youth, particularly African American and Latino youth, are more likely than White and Asian/Asian American youth to live at or below the poverty line. Additionally, ethnic minority youth are more likely to experience discrimination as a result of racist beliefs and racial stereotypes. Therefore, poverty and racism are risk factors for ethnic minority youth in the U.S. because these phenomena predispose those youth to adverse outcomes in multiple settings. The aforementioned risk factors potentially threaten the ability of youth to be successful in academic settings through their association with mental health issues such as depression, anxiety, and posttraumatic stress, and more general emotional distress such as fear, mistrust, and helplessness. In addition, poverty and racism can interfere with the opportunity for learning activities in the home and/or school. Therefore, social support becomes an important potential buffer to the negative impact of risk factors on educational outcomes because supportive others can help youth negotiate their emotional, psychological, and behavioral responses to risk factors in multiple environments.

Protective Factors and Supports in the Home

Importantly, research has demonstrated that numerous factors help ethnic minority youth from low-income backgrounds combat the negative effects of poverty, racism, and racial stereotypes, which in turn cultivate the educational resilience of these youth. Positive family experiences and familial supports can promote educational resilience for low-income and ethnic minority youth. More specifically, perceived and actual parental and family support in ethnic minorities have a positive relationship with academic outcomes,

such that as perceived and actual parental and family support increase so does youths' academic performance. Similarly, studies have demonstrated that for African American youth in urban settings in particular, parental monitoring interacts with neighborhood risk factors to have an impact on academic outcomes, whereby as parental monitoring increases in the presence of increasing neighborhood risk factors, so does the academic performance of African American urban youth.

Perceived support from a parent is a framework from which youths can explore contexts outside of the home and master the challenges within those contexts. Further, there is evidence that supportive relationships with parents beyond early childhood (i.e., adolescence) may continue to serve a similar purpose, providing a secure base from which early adolescents can explore the environment. These relationships become relevant in regard to the academic achievement, motivation and overall educational resilience in youth. For example, perceived support from parents may allow youth to achieve a sense of academic competence, as well as actual school achievement, by providing them with a secure emotional foundation. Youth may also perceive themselves more positively, as well as more competent, by virtue of the strength of perceived support from parents. Hence, the secure emotional foundation obtained as a result of supportive relationships with parents and other family members is what contributes to the protective effect of perceived and actual parental and family support and academic outcomes among educationally resilient youth.

Parental involvement in the school context has been associated with youth school success, including better achievement and behavior, lower absenteeism, and more positive attitudes toward school. These associations have withstood the rigor of longitudinal studies, which have demonstrated that increased parental involvement leads to better academic functioning in youth. The importance of parental school involvement has also been documented within economically disadvantaged, ethnically diverse samples. Parental school involvement may lead to more positive academic outcomes in youth by fostering a sense of shared responsibility for children's education. Such family-school connections may be particularly beneficial for youth from economically disadvantaged environments due to their increased risk of experiencing discontinuities between home and school.

Protective Factors and Supports in the School

Perceived support from teachers also has an impact on the academic outcomes of ethnic minority and low-income youth who are placed at risk for failure due to exposure to multiple risk factors. In samples of primarily Latino and African American low-income and urban youth, perceptions of teacher feedback, educational support from teachers, teacher expectations, and time spent interacting with teachers are associated with and/or predictive of educational resilience, which has been measured with school grades, standardized test scores, and/or other academic factors. As youths' perceptions of the presence of teacher support increase, so does their academic performance.

Various measures of school and classroom climate, facilities, and curricula also influence the educational resilience of youth placed at risk. An example of this is that youth who have a high sense of school belonging are more educationally resilient. Also, youth who are more satisfied with their schools, more engaged in classroom activities, spend more time on task, have more positive school ties, more curriculum exposure, and/or perceive more task orientation and organization in their classrooms are more educationally resilient. Additionally, school environments and classroom curricula that are more culturally responsive are associated with more educationally resilient youth. Therefore, classrooms and schools that acknowledge and incorporate into the curricula and mission of the school the unique cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors of the students have students that are more educationally resilient.

Supportive and responsive learning environments are important in the education of all youth, but they are especially important to the educational resilience of youth who are placed at risk due to their race and/or socioeconomic background. Therefore, schools serving these populations can and should employ research-based techniques that increase the likelihood and predict the academic success of all its students, especially those who may be vulnerable due to social factors outside of their control. Establishing school and classroom climates that are supportive, culturally responsive, and academically challenging and fair can promote educational resilience in low-income and ethnic minority students.

Protective Factors and Supports in the Community

The risk factors associated with low-income neighborhoods, where many ethnic minority youth reside, can and do make these youth vulnerable to negative educational outcomes; however, the literature on neighborhood and community phenomenology also highlights protective factors and supports in these communities that promote resilience in its youth. Some protective factors that promote positive outcomes among low-income and ethnic minority youth and contribute to their resilience in contexts of risk identified in the literature include perceived supportive interactions with neighbors and other members of the community, involvement in community organizations, involvement in churches, and structured recreational and academic enrichment activities, such as team sports. The availability and quality of these community resources promotes the educational resilience of the youth who use them.

Some specific findings among primarily African American and Latino youth were that youths' perceptions of supportive interactions with neighbors was correlated to educational resilience in that youth who report more supportive relations with neighbors also report higher grades and higher school self-efficacy. Additionally, youth reports of more opportunities for engagement in neighborhood-based activities such as youth groups for sports, academic tutoring, summer programs, enrichment lessons, volunteer opportunities, and church or temple membership and participation are associated with more educational resilience.

Although the literature on the protective effect of neighborhood and community-based supports and resources on the educational resilience of youth who are placed at risk is still growing, current findings are promising. Because of this history of social connectedness in the African American community and *familisimo* (a cultural value among some Latino populations where the needs of the family override those of the individual, and family unity and loyalty are valued over and above the individual), there is the possibility that perceived support from individuals in their community can have a positive impact on the educational resilience of these youth. Some studies have demonstrated that this sense of collectivity fosters in some youth a sense of responsibility to their

families and communities to succeed, thereby motivating them to do well academically, especially in the face of environmental and economic challenges. Potential mechanisms through which involvement in neighborhood and community-based structured activities foster educational resilience are access to caring and supportive adults, responsible peers, and skill-building activities. These mechanisms provide opportunities for youth who may have limited resources to be successful in contexts that are often plagued by risk factors; thus, their vulnerability is potentially offset by access to enriching activities and positive adult models in their neighborhoods and communities.

See also: 🔗 [Academic achievement in minority children](#); 🔗 [Cultural resilience](#); 🔗 [Resilience](#); 🔗 [Resilience building prevention programs](#)

Suggested Reading

- Waxman, H. C., Gray, J. P., & Padron, Y. N. (2003). *Review of research on educational resilience*. Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Research Reports. (Paper rr_11). University of California, Santa Cruz. Retrieved 15 May 2006. http://repositories.cdlib.org/crede/rschrpts/rr_11.
- Luthar, S. S. (Ed.) (2003). *Resilience and vulnerability: Adaptation in the context of childhood adversities*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Luthar, S. S., Cicchetti, D., & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development*, 71, 543–562.

Suggested Resources

- The Resilience Project—<http://www.resilienceproject.com/>: This website provides kindergarten through twelfth grade lesson plans, quotes, testimonials, and other resources for educators who want to foster resilience in their students.
- Resilience Research: How Can it Help City Schools?—http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/cityschl/city1_1b.htm: This website reviews some empirical research on educational resilience and provides concrete suggestions for what parents and educators can do to promote resilience in youth. Also, there is an example of “resilience in action” at one school.
- The Resilience Guide for Parents and Teachers—<http://www.apahelpcenter.org/featuredtopics/feature.php?id=39>: This website was constructed by the American Psychological Association and provides tips for building resilience in children and teens.

Ego Identity Statuses

Georgia Yu

The central psychosocial task of adolescence is the formation of a consolidated ego identity as a sense of personal sameness and historical continuity that transcends any particular moment or circumstance. By late adolescence and early adulthood, young people are expected to form a secure ego identity in occupational, educational, and political domains—areas that are believed to be salient to their psychosocial functioning in society.

In the U.S., by the end of adolescence and early adulthood, youngsters are expected to form a cohesive sense of self in several salient domains following a period of active search among meaningful alternatives. Having a secure ego identity is associated with positive psychosocial outcomes. Erikson described ego identity consolidation as a developmental process that provides youngsters with meaning, direction, and purpose and allows them to form the sense of competence needed to function adaptively in adulthood.

The concept of identity has been approached in many different ways. Several theorists have offered developmental models of identity, e.g., Erik H Erikson and Peter Blos. The present focus on adolescent identity is based on the Marcia ego identity status paradigm. Since the concept of identity status was introduced in 1966, Marcia's ideas have generated a great number of studies. Researchers from different countries have studied identity status in populations, ranging from early adolescence to late adulthood.

Influence of Erik Erikson

Marcia's ideas spring from Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Erikson described eight psychosocial stages of development, each stage consisting of both physical and psychological development set in a social context. Each stage represents different developmental tasks that we all face during a lifetime, with identity as the primary psychosocial task of adolescence. Erikson viewed identity as built upon childhood identifications but as being more than the sum of these. He described the process of identity formation as being built upon the childhood processes of

introjection and identification; that during childhood we incorporate the image of our parents (or other significant relations) and their roles, values, and beliefs. According to Erikson, our future identity formation requires such introjects and identifications. However, it is not until the individual is able to choose some of those childhood identifications, and discard others, based on her or his interests and values, that identity formation can begin. Erikson stresses that all the necessary ingredients for an identity are not present until adolescence. At that point in life, great physiological and cognitive changes coincide with growing social expectations. Identity, for Erikson, is the individual's personal organization of experiences of biological and psychological development in relation to the recognition and regulation the individual receives in the social context.

Marcia developed the identity status paradigm in an effort to operationally define and empirically investigate Erikson's construct of identity. In interview studies, Marcia found that participants had different ways of arriving at an identity, and that they displayed diverse outcomes of identity formation. The differences found could be explained with reference to two important processes involved in the formation of an identity, namely exploration and commitment. Based upon the criteria of these processes, Marcia formulated four different identity statuses that describe different ways of forming an identity: Identity Diffusion, Moratorium, Foreclosure, and Identity Achievement. Identity diffusion is characterized by an absence of both identity search and commitment. Foreclosure is defined in terms of a commitment made based on parental values, without an active period of exploration. Moratorium is characterized by current involvement in an identity search without yet having achieved a commitment. Identity achievement is determined by clear commitment, following a period of active search.

Identity-achieved individuals have gone through a period of exploration and have made identity-defining commitments. They are assumed to have successfully resolved the psychosocial task of adolescence. In interviews identity-achieved adolescents seem thoughtful and introspective; able to articulate how they have made their choices and why. From experimental studies we know that identity-achieved individuals perform well under stress, reason at high levels of moral development, and score high on measures of autonomy. No significant differences in intelligence have

been determined between the identity statuses, but identity-achieved individuals are shown to be more creative and rational than other statuses.

Individuals that go through moratorium are currently in the process of exploration and commitments are either vague or absent. These individuals actively struggle to arrive at commitments. However, moratoriums' struggle to achieve identity is an ambivalent one. They alternate between rebellion and conformity. Empirical studies have shown that moratoriums are more anxious than the achieved or foreclosed individuals.

Foreclosures are, on the other hand, the least anxious of the statuses. In interviews they appear goal-directed and well behaved, although inflexible and defensive. They are strongly committed, but their commitments are not the result of exploration. Foreclosed persons have adopted goals, values, and beliefs from parents or other authority figures without much critical thought. It has been experimentally determined that foreclosures are authoritarian, approval-seeking, and somewhat rigid in their thought processes.

The fourth identity status is diffusion. Marcia explains that there are subtypes of all identity statuses. However, the diffusions have proven to be the most heterogeneous group. Identity-diffused individuals may have undergone some explorations, but they seem to be meandering more than actively exploring. Lack of commitment is characteristic of these individuals. Some diffusions have a "playboy/playgirl" attitude to life; they seem to drift aimlessly and carefree. Others may show severe psychopathology exemplified by social isolation and unhappiness. Interviews with diffusions tend to be short. Unlike the other statuses they do not have much to say in an identity status interview. On experimental measures, identity-diffused individuals have the most difficulty thinking when under stress and use less complex cognitive styles than do moratoriums and achievements.

Research on identity status has repeatedly shown that persons who have undergone the exploration-commitment process are more relationally competent and mature than those who have not. The identity statuses are generally regarded as representing different levels of sophistication. Diffusion is considered the least advanced of the statuses, followed by foreclosure, moratorium, and identity achievement. Furthermore, the developmental assumptions are that the amount of identity achieved by each individual increases with age, and that relatively few late adolescents should be diffused.

See also: [Adolescence](#); [Adolescent ethnic identity](#)

Suggested Reading

- Marcia, J. E. (1966). Development and validation of ego identity status. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 3, 551–558.
- Schwartz, S. J., Cote, J. E., & Arnett, J. J. (2005). Identity and agency in emerging adulthood: Two developmental routes in the individualization process. *Youth and Society*, 37(2), 201–229.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)

Erika L Taylor · Theodore J Christ

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (Pub. L. No. 89–10) is one of the first and largest federal laws to provide monetary support for public education. The purpose of ESEA was to improve educational opportunities for children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. While the Act was originally authorized through 1970, the government has reauthorized ESEA every 5 years since its enactment. As a result, ESEA has undergone numerous name changes over the years. Some of the major amendments include the Improving America's Schools Act (1994) and the No Child Left Behind Act (2002).

The Civil Rights movement (1954–1968), which aimed to abolish public and private acts of racial discrimination against African Americans, set the social and political climate of the time in the United States (U.S.) leading up to ESEA. In 1954, the historical *Brown v. Board of Education* case outlawed racial segregation in public schools, overturning the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* "separate but equal" ruling. By the middle of the 1960s, many American school districts were integrated. Although the integration within public schools represented a substantial advance towards the goal of equality in the U.S., disparities in economics and academic achievement persisted.

When Lyndon B. Johnson was elected president in 1964, he recognized the need for social reform. President Johnson pushed for immediate Congressional action to eliminate poverty and racial injustice, an agenda that was termed "The Great Society." One

outcome of this agenda was the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which Johnson signed shortly after he was elected president. This legislation prohibited discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The law also provided the federal government with the powers to enforce desegregation in public settings, including schools (Title III). Another program from the Great Society agenda was the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965.

The ESEA was introduced by the Commissioner of Education Francis Keppel in January of 1965, and was subsequently passed on April 9, 1965. The act was developed on the premise that children from low-income families required more educational services compared to children from affluent families. As a result, ESEA established that special funds would be reserved for schools with a high concentration of children from low income families. Rather than provide a general aid package to all school systems, the allocation formulas for ESEA allocated funds to local education agencies (LEAs) with the greatest proportions of disadvantaged children. These funds were intentionally distributed through state education agencies (SEAs) to avoid the perception that the federal government was intervening in the rights and obligations of states to provide public education.

Many of the educational programs that exist today are due to the ESEA of 1965. For example, Title I was established to provide supplemental educational opportunities for schools with high concentrations of children living in poverty. Today, Title I funds are provided to support either targeted assistance programs or schoolwide programs. Funding for targeted assistance programs support services to individual students who are reared in conditions such as poverty. Funding for schoolwide programs, such as Title I, is designed to improve the rate of development and achievement within school communities that serve a high proportion of students from disadvantaged conditions. Together these programs provide both intensive support to individuals and communities that are at risk for school failure, dropout, and low achievement.

Probably one of the most recognized compensatory education programs that came from the ESEA legislation is Head Start. Head Start is a national program that seeks to prepare children from low-income families for entrance into formal education and success in school by providing a preschool education. Additionally, when the Bilingual Education Act was added as an amendment to ESEA in 1968, federal resources were

provided for bilingual education programs. This act was created to help local schools districts address the needs of children with limited English proficiency.

The ESEA influenced later legislation and policy. It established the education system as a viable nexus to prevent and remediate social and economic ills that establish disadvantage and vulnerability within specific segments of the U.S. community. The success of ESEA also prompted an increase in categorical funding within the public education system. In contrast to general purpose funds which can be used to pay for anything, categorical funds must be spent for specific purposes such as special education or teacher training. In addition, ESEA's encouragement of state departments of education to administer federal education funds led to increased involvement of state governments in educational decision-making.

Some of the major acts that derived from ESEA include the Bilingual Education Act, the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA), and the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. Today, ESEA is known as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), and includes the most recent amendments. While the major premise of the law (to provide financial assistance to schools with children living in high poverty areas) remains the same, several new components have are gaining increased attention. Some of these include stronger accountability for schools regarding student achievement, increased flexibility and local control, and school choice options for parents of children in schools failing to demonstrate progress.

See also: ➤ *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*; ➤ *No Child Left Behind (NCLB)*

Suggested Reading

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- Million, J. (2005). Nurturing teachers in the famine of NCLB. *Education Digest*, 70(9), 16–18.
- Weaver, R. (2006). A positive agenda for ESEA. *Education Leadership*, 64(3), 32–36.

Suggested Resources

History of Education—http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/~daniel_schugurensky/: This website provides detailed reviews on select moments in the history of education in the U.S. during the twentieth century. The site also provides links to additional internet sources covering the history of education.

Emic–Etic Distinction

Fons J R van de Vijver

The emic–etic distinction refers to a difference made by cross-cultural researchers between two traditional research strategies used to study phenomena in different cultures. The terms “emic” and “etic” were borrowed from two strategies used in the study of linguistics (introduced by the linguist Pike). Phonemics attempts to identify all the sounds, or phonemes, used within one language. In contrast, phonetics analysis seeks to identify similar sounds across different languages and to develop a universal language coding system. In parallel, “etics” refers to research that studies cross-cultural differences (only superficially studying each individual culture), while “emics” refers to research that fully studies one culture with no (or only a secondary) cross-cultural focus. In addition, in “etics,” researchers seek to define common phenomena across cultures which can be used to define a set of universal phenomena among all cultures; “emics” lacks this aspect.

Since the 1970s, there has been a controversy about which is the best research strategy for cross-cultural studies. Proponents of the emic viewpoint posit that phenomena should be studied from within their own cultural context and only with reference to this context. For example, studies of Chinese students’ learning strategies should provide a detailed overview of these strategies and relate them to presumably relevant features of Chinese culture, such as Confucian philosophy. In contrast, proponents of the etic strategy propose that the primary purpose of researching a culture is developing an understanding of cross-cultural differences and similarities. For example, etic researchers might use a questionnaire to compare the learning strategies of Chinese versus American students. The research methods employed in the emic and etic traditions also tend to differ. Emic research frequently uses methods from ethnography, whereas etic research largely draws from the research methods used in empirical psychology.

Good examples of emic phenomena are culture-bound syndromes, such as Pibloktoq (Arctic Hysteria), a behavior which is displayed solely by inhabitants of Greenland, Alaska, and Canada. Arctic Hysteria is characterized by a dissociative period, followed by a short period of extreme arousal and an uncontrollable

tendency to display dangerous or irrational behavior. A good example of an etic phenomenon is the cross-culturally invariant sequence of cognitive development as proposed by Piaget (sensorimotor, operational, and formal operational).

In the last decade, there has been a growing appreciation of the complementary nature of emic and etic approaches, and many researchers now note that the two strategies are better seen as lying on a continuum rather than as mutually exclusive and incompatible research strategies. Rather than view the two strategies as dichotomous, the emic–etic distinction has been redefined as cultural specificity (emic) versus universality (etic).

In this new approach, emic and etic approaches can co-exist and work together, because many phenomena studied in cross-cultural research have both universal and culture-specific aspects. For example, the learning strategies of Chinese students are likely to be composed of a large set of strategies that can also be found among non-Chinese students and of a small set of strategies that are unique to Chinese students. Another example is personality. There is significant evidence that the five-factor model of personality (which holds that personality structure comprises of neuroticism, extroversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) is universally applicable. Although the Western five-factor model may occur in all cultures, the model may not yet fully capture all the culture-specific aspects of personality. Studies conducted in mainland China provide evidence that the five-factor model may be incomplete, for instance, as the model does not yet adequately measure the relational aspects of personality.

See also: [Cross-cultural competence in school psychologists’ services](#); [Cultural diversity](#)

Suggested Reading

- Berry, J. W., Poortinga, Y. H., Segall, M. H., & Dasen, P. R. (2002). *Cross-cultural psychology: Research and applications* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harkness, J. A., Van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Mohler, P. P. h. (Eds.) (2003). *Cross-cultural survey methods*. New York: Wiley.
- Smith, P. B., Bond M. H., & Kagitcibasi, C. (2006). *Understanding social psychology across cultures: Living and working in a changing world*. London, UK: Sage.
- Van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Leung, K. (1997). *Methods and data analysis for cross-cultural research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Suggested Resources

Western Washington University: Center for Cross-Cultural Research—<http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/readings.htm>: This Western Washington University Website offers online readings in psychology and culture that can be utilized by both students and professors.

Emotional Intelligence

Erin K Maguire

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a concept with roots in the theory of social intelligence. EI is now used to refer to a collective group of qualities about a person with a certain “character” or “personality.” It signifies several qualities including a person’s ability to self-regulate one’s emotions and feelings, to delay gratification, and to motivate oneself. Different from cognition, EI also involves a metacognitive quality where the individual is able to internally discriminate among emotions, monitor one’s feelings with respect to others and use this self-regulation quality to guide one’s thinking and actions. EI contends that these qualities emotionally cushion a person to succeed on a daily basis without dissonance.

Throughout the past several decades, increasingly more attention and research has sought to define EI, discover particular qualities that exemplify a person’s EI and develop ways to measure this concept. Several leading social scientists have led the forefront in defining and measuring EI. In the early 1970’s, Professor David McClelland from Harvard University studied qualities that contribute to higher job performance. His findings indicated that aspects of intelligence alone such as academic achievement, scholastic aptitude and impressive credentials did not predict a person’s success in a particular job.

John Mayer and Peter Salovey developed four branches of EI. They stated that first EI includes accurate emotional perception and identification and the ability to perceive and encode information from the emotional system. It is known that nonverbal expression accounts for as much as 80% of human communication; thus EI stresses the importance of having the ability to recognize and process emotions

in oneself as well as others. The second branch looks at the metacognitive process of formulating ideas about emotions and being able to rely on prior knowledge and experience with previous emotions to facilitate thought. EI emphasizes adaptive coping and adjustment to emotional surroundings. The third branch of EI involves understanding emotions. Each emotion encountered is associated with a number of communications. One particular emotion may emit different responses depending on a particular situation or prior knowledge associated with that emotion. Fully understanding and comprehending each emotion will thus allow one to empathize and relate better to others. Managing emotions is the last component of EI. This branch states that emotional management is best achieved when an individual has had previous experience with a particular emotion and is able to differentiate between one’s response to one’s own emotional response as well as that of others.

At the same time Mayer and Salovey were researching EI, Daniel Goleman’s interest in other aspects of intelligence culminated in his influential book *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Goleman’s definition of EI is comprised of five elements: the ability to identify one’s emotional condition and understand the linkage between emotions, thought and action; the capacity to manage one’s emotional states; the ability to go in and out of emotional states with a drive to achieve success; the ability to comprehend, empathize and influence other’s emotions; and the ability to have agreeable interpersonal relationships.

Mayer and Salovey developed the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale to assess EI. The outcome of this scale was a test to measure EI called the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Individuals who take the test receive an EQ (emotional quotient). High EQ scores indicate high competence on the EI model.

See also: 🔗 [Character education](#); 🔗 [Intelligence/Intelligence Quotient \(IQ\)](#); 🔗 [Testing and measurement](#)

Suggested Reading

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.

Suggested Resources

<http://www.eiconsortium.org/>: This website presents research associated with emotional intelligence with a focus on vocation-related research.

English as a Second Language Instruction (ESL)

Youb Kim · Meredith McLellan · Mary Elizabeth Asbell

The significant number of foreign-born students in United States (U.S.) schools has brought English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction to the forefront of the nation's educational agenda. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, 34.2 million people—12% of the total U.S. population—were born in foreign countries. Among them, 53% are from Latin America, 25% from Asia, 14% from Europe, and the remaining 8% come from other parts of the world. Breakdown by age shows that 3 million are of school age, including 0.7 million between the ages of 5 and 9, 1.1 million between 10 and 14, and 0.9 million between 15 and 17. U.S. Census Bureau data published in 2005 on the year of entry indicates that one third of these school-age children arrived in the year 2000 or later, highlighting the need for language support in schools.

ESL instruction in kindergarten through grade 12 school contexts is intended to provide language support for students whose first language is not English. In general, ESL instruction is based upon at least three assumptions about ESL learners. First, ESL students have developed oral and written language skills appropriate at their grade or age levels by the time they enter schools in English-speaking countries. Second, they possess age- or grade-appropriate cognitive skills. Third, although they are proficient communicators in their native language, they may not be able to express their thoughts in English, and they may not comprehend oral or written messages in English when they begin learning English as a second language. In addition, parents of ESL students are assumed to be capable of providing continuing support for students' language, literacy, and cognitive development in their

native language. Based upon these assumptions, ESL instruction focuses on providing support in speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking skills in English so that ESL students can participate competently in general education classrooms, which may take several years.

It is important for teachers to initially assess ESL students' knowledge and skills in English. The purpose is to understand ESL students' background knowledge in English in addition to getting information about their English language learning history through their self-report or their parents' responses to questionnaires provided by the school. Teachers can use either standardized ESL tests or informal assessment tools to get a sense of ESL students' initial knowledge in English. A few examples of standardized ESL tests available in the market include Pre-Las2000, Bilingual Syntax Measure, Language Assessment Scales, Maculaitis Test of English Language Proficiency, IDEA Proficiency Tests, and Language Assessment Battery. These tests are often divided into oral, reading, and writing skill subtests, except for the Bilingual Syntax Measure, which solely focuses on assessment of ESL students' knowledge and development of English grammar in oral language. Teachers can also use informal assessment, such as measuring ESL students' knowledge of English words of objects found in the classroom by showing an object and asking the students to say its English name. Depending on the student's proficiency level, this might be expanded to reading, writing, and discussion segments (e.g., Where are you from?).

To provide effective ESL instruction that supports ESL students' language and cognitive development in English and successful transitioning into the general education classroom, teachers need to consider two axioms. First, they need to consider the instructional demand of the students' grade level clusters (e.g., pre-kindergarten-K, 1–3, 4–5, 6–8, and 9–12). Equally important, teachers need to consider students' English language skills identified through the initial ESL assessment (e.g., starting, emerging, developing, expanding, and bridging). While considering these two axioms as a way to conceptualize the nature of effective instruction, an overarching purpose should be on helping ESL students gradually take ownership of their own language learning and learn to use all language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) in English actively and thoughtfully for academic, personal, and social purposes. The characteristics of ESL instruction

can be organized into emerging, beginning, and elaborating phases.

Emerging ESL Instruction

ESL instruction for kindergarten to grade 12 (K-12) students with minimal to emerging English skills requires explicit and contextually rich instruction. Teachers need to use lots of authentic pictures, illustrations, and diagrams to build basic language skills—especially English vocabulary—for students at the emerging phase. Because students at this emerging phase do not possess English oral and written language communication skills, they may not respond or express their thoughts verbally for an extended period of time. Despite ESL students' lack of exhibited communicative behaviors, teachers need to provide English instruction as explicitly as possible while attending to the match between students' emotional maturity and instructional texts and activities.

Instructional method and classroom activities at the emerging phase should focus on building ESL students' experiential knowledge and basic language skills while making instructional accommodations for the emotional maturity of the students. For pre-K to first grade ESL students, instructional methods and activities based upon emergent literacy perspectives are effective. The Language Experience Approach to reading is a good example, as young ESL students will have an opportunity to develop experiential knowledge, interests, and language skills. For instance, teachers can bring in different types of fruits to the classroom and have students taste them. In the process, ESL students can learn the English names of fruits and commonly used adjectives that describe their distinctive characteristics, such as taste. Then, ESL students can draw a picture of fruits they like in their writing journal. These writing journals can be used as a space for ESL students to record their emerging knowledge about English.

The Language Experience Approach is also useful for older ESL students with minimal to emerging English language skills. However, older ESL students are generally emotionally more mature and cognitively more capable, and teachers should consider these learner characteristics as they make instructional adaptations. For ESL students in second to fourth grade who have already developed literacy skills in their native languages, teachers can help them develop experiential knowledge about apple picking by going to an apple

orchard in the fall. ESL students can make word cards which include a picture of an object that they saw on the field trip to an apple orchard on one side and its English name on the other side. Teachers can also provide informational texts which ESL students in grades 2–4 can comprehend. For ESL students in fifth grade and above who possess not only sophisticated literacy skills in their native languages but also a sense of cultural identity, teachers need to use instructional methods and activities that validate students' cultural knowledge while also building basic English skills. For instance, teachers can invite ESL students to share their cultural knowledge about apple picking or apple orchards while helping them develop a basic English vocabulary and experiential knowledge about relevant topics. Along with developmentally appropriate instructional methods and activities, teachers need to support ESL students in the emerging phase emotionally by giving an abundance of positive feedback on their efforts.

Beginning ESL Instruction

ESL instruction for K-12 students with beginning English language skills requires conceptually rich instruction while sheltering the cognitive demand of language used in oral sharing and written texts. Beginning ESL students possess basic vocabulary to express their thoughts, and they can read texts with simple language structure. However, their speech and written language production is marked by frequent grammatical errors. Because there is a great gap between ESL students' receptive English language skills and expressive language abilities at this beginning phase, teachers need to exert great efforts to understand what ESL students are trying to communicate and provide conventional English language forms central to their expressive ideas while giving them emotional support for their communicative efforts.

To provide conceptually rich instruction, teachers need to organize instruction thematically and use reading and writing activities while giving continued support to expand the size of students' English vocabulary. For pre-K to fourth grade ESL students with beginning English language skills, teachers should plan instructional methods and activities based upon themes in which students are interested and which are emotionally appropriate for grade-level clusters. Baby animals are a good theme for pre-K to first grade students,

and for students in grades 2–4, studying animal species would be emotionally more appropriate. For ESL students in grades 5 and above, teachers commonly use an instructional approach called *sheltered instruction* that focuses on grade-level content topic with simplified content and language to make ESL instruction accessible to these beginning ESL students.

Along with instructional approaches that promote ESL students' conceptual and linguistic knowledge in English, teachers need to provide linguistic resources that ESL students with beginning English skills can use to help them take ownership of expanding their English language skills. An example would be helping ESL students make a personal dictionary, in which students draw a picture and write a definition for a word they newly encounter. Teachers also need to give beginning ESL students lots of opportunities to practice their developing English language skills in a supportive classroom learning environment. A few good examples are weekly oral sharing of their experiences at home, writing an ending to a story, language games, and keeping a learning journal.

Elaborating ESL Instruction

To provide effective ESL instruction for K-12 students who possess knowledge, experience, and skills to expand and elaborate English language for communication and content area learning, teachers should focus on deepening conceptual and linguistic knowledge with self-monitoring learning strategies. Elaborating ESL instruction is applicable to ESL students who exhibit between intermediate and fluent English proficiency on ESL tests. ESL students at this phase include students who possess English language skills to communicate their day-to-day needs and respond to teachers' requests for participating in classroom activities, although they may exhibit difficulty comprehending complex language structures in oral and written forms. Because ESL students possess enough language knowledge and skills to learn more complex language forms and content, teachers should focus on expanding the repertoire of ESL students' metacognitive strategies.

ESL students from pre-K to first grade can participate meaningfully in the instruction designed for English-speaking students. Elaborating ESL instruction for students in second grade and above requires modification to expand English language knowledge based upon their grade-level clusters. A few examples of

such instructional methods are introducing common English morphemes such as the plural marker *-s* and the past tense marker *-ed* along with their functions. Guiding ESL students to use more interesting words during editing their own writing or peer editing would also be a good way to help ESL students expand their English knowledge. Thoughtful literacy activities are central for students at this phase. For example, effective instructional activities include independent reading, retelling a story, oral discussions about books they have read, and writing a written response to books they have read. For ESL students in fifth grade and above, teachers can provide sheltered instruction in content areas at their grade level with a focus on sheltering the complexity of language demand.

Delivery Mode of ESL Instruction: Pullout vs. Integrated

As teachers consider the characteristics of effective instruction, they need to understand that there are two modes to delivering ESL instruction. Teachers can pull students who exhibit needs for ESL support out of their general education classroom for a certain period on a regular basis, such as daily or three or four times a week, and bring them to a separate classroom to provide focused ESL instruction. This is called *pullout ESL instruction* and is intended to provide language support in a protective environment. Teachers can also provide ESL support by going into ESL students' general education classroom. In this mode of integrated ESL instruction, ESL teachers need to support ESL students to participate in general education classroom activities. In general, the delivery mode of ESL instruction is decided by the number of ESL students at each proficiency level, the ratio of ESL students and ESL teachers, and requests by the regular education teachers.

Parental Involvement

Like any type of instruction at any grade level, parental involvement leads to positive educational outcomes for ESL students. Teachers can invite parents of ESL students to share their cultural heritage or observe their children in the classroom. Teachers can also involve parents in their children's language learning by asking them to listen as their children read the word banks or

books they bring home. The parent–teacher conference is a more formal channel through which teachers can help parents understand the strengths and needs of ESL students. However, the key is to understand that some parents may not have effective English oral language communication skills, and they may expect teachers to be the expert in providing the best education for their children. In such cases, teachers need to accommodate parents' language proficiency in English and their expectations of teachers' roles while helping them get involved in their children's language learning so that their instructional efforts can reap fruitful results.

Summary

In summary, ESL instruction in K-12 school contexts provides support for students whose first language is not English in speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking in English. Its goal is to help ESL students use English for academic, personal, and social purposes and ultimately to participate competently in general education classrooms. Because ESL students need to learn basic English communication skills as well as grade-level content knowledge, it may take several years for ESL students to achieve this goal. During this complex language learning process, teachers need to provide emotional support while using instructional methods, approaches, and materials appropriate for students' growing English language knowledge and the demand of content in their grade-level clusters.

See also: 🔗 [English language learners](#); 🔗 [Limited English proficiency](#); 🔗 [Teaching of English as a Second Language \(TOESL\)](#)

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- August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.) (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Garcia, G. G. (Ed.) (2003). *English learners: Reaching the highest level of English literacy*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W. M., & Christian, D. (Eds.) (2006). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Spangenberg-Urbschat, K., & Pritchard, R. (Eds.) (1994). *Kids come in all languages: Reading instruction for ESL students*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

U.S. Census Bureau (2005). Foreign-born population tops 34 million, Census Bureau estimates. Retrieved March 5, 2007, http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/www/releases/archives/foreignborn_population/003969.html

Young, T. A., & Hadaway, N. L. (Eds.) (2006). *Supporting the literacy development of English language learners: Increasing success in all classrooms*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Suggested Resources

Office of English Language Acquisition—<http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/index.html?src=mr>: This website offers information on the mission and activities of the Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (OELA).

TESOL (Teachers of English to the Speakers of Other Languages, Inc)—http://www.tesol.org/s_tesol/index.asp: This global education association was founded in 1966 to share research and practical knowledge on and provide support for English language teaching to the speakers of other languages.

English Language Learners

Guillermo Solano-Flores

The definition of English language learner (ELL) as someone whose first language (L1) is not English and is learning English may not reflect all the characteristics of the linguistic minorities who constitute over 9% of the U.S. public school enrollment from pre-kindergarten through grade 12. Unlike students learning a foreign language voluntarily through elective courses, English is a second language (L2) for ELLs—though not a foreign language—that they need to develop while they are also developing their L1.

ELLs are individuals whose limited English proficiency (EP) limits their access to education. Major issues and concerns related to educating ELLs include: (1) equity (ELLs cannot benefit from instruction as much as other populations do); (2) test validity (test scores may not be accurate measures of their academic achievement if they do not possess certain linguistic competences that, although irrelevant to the construct measured, are needed in test taking); (3) their

underrepresentation in talented and gifted education programs; (4) their overrepresentation in special education programs; and (5) their historical underperformance in standardized tests.

Because EP tests provide only a partial picture of an individual's complex pattern of linguistic skills, these instruments should be used judiciously to inform instructional (e.g., placement) and testing (e.g., inclusion) decisions for ELLs. Proficiency in a language is context-bound (it is shaped by different situations, topics, and interlocutors), multidimensional (it involves listening, speaking, reading, and writing), and system-based (it involves both L1 and L2). In contrast, practices for assessing EP tend to use decontextualized language tasks, do not address all language dimensions, and rarely pay attention to an individual's L1. As a result, information about an ELL's communication skills is fragmented, inaccurate, and inconsistent. An additional limitation of EP tests is that often they are based on English language arts or standards for English as a foreign language, which emphasize formal aspects of language (e.g., spelling, pronunciation) over functional communicative competences (i.e., pragmatic, discourse, and strategic) that are more relevant to a student struggling to learn a new language.

Because language tests are sensitive to different aspects of language, making decisions on an individual's EP should be based on multiple measures. In practice, however, these decisions are sometimes based on one test or on questionable criteria for identifying ELLs (e.g. race, last name, or country of origin). EP categories (e.g., "limited," "proficient") are unlikely to address the tremendous heterogeneity of ELL populations because of multiple patterns of language dominance and multiple schooling, demographic, educational, and cultural factors.

Although bilingual education programs can support ELLs in the development of their L2, to be effective, they must: (1) promote the development of L2 in addition to—not at the expense of—L1; (2) integrate (rather than segregate) linguistically diverse populations; (3) be based on a view of EP as a difference, not a deficit; and (4) be sensitive to the characteristics of the students' communities. The effectiveness of these programs is shaped, among other factors, by social context and fidelity of implementation.

Assessment policies should be consistent with the notion that, whereas ELLs develop a conversational fluency in a relatively short time, they need five to seven years to develop English as an academic language.

Valid measures of academic achievement for ELLs cannot be obtained by testing them after a short period of instruction in English. Also, assessment policies based on blanket approaches may be limited because of the heterogeneity of ELL populations; what works for one student may not work for others. Certain testing accommodations (e.g., test completion extended time, item linguistic simplification, test translation) are moderately effective in reducing the score gap between ELLs and non-ELL students in large-scale tests.

See also: [Bilingual education programs: Maintenance, Transitional, and Dual language](#); [Bilingualism](#); [Culturally competent assessment of English language learners](#); [Language and educational assessment](#)

Suggested Reading

- Abedi, J., Hofstetter, C. H., & Lord, C. (2004). Assessment accommodations for English language learners: Implications for policy-based empirical research. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 1–28.
- Brisk, M. E. (2006). *Bilingual education: From compensatory to quality schooling* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hakuta, K. (2001). *How long does it take English learners to attain proficiency?* University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute. Policy Reports. Santa Barbara, CA: Linguistic Minority Research Institute. Retrieved from <http://repositories.cdlib.org/lmri/pr/hakuta>, January 12, 2009
- Klingner, J. K., & Artiles, A. (2003). When should bilingual students be in special education? *Educational Leadership*, 61(2): 66–71.
- Solano-Flores, G., & Trumbull, E. (2003). Examining language in context: The need for new research and practice paradigms in the testing of English-language learners. *Educational Researcher*, 32, 3–13.

Suggested Resources

- National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)—<http://www.nabe.org/about.html>: The National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) is a professional organization devoted to representing English language learners and bilingual education professionals.
- Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO)—<http://www.ccsso.org/>: The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) provides leadership, advocacy, and technical assistance on major educational issues, including the education and assessment of English language learners.
- Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)—<http://www.cal.org/>: The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is an organization for the promotion and improvement of the teaching and learning of languages, and for research on language issues.

ESEA

◆ Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)

ESL

◆ English as a Second Language Instruction (ESL)

Ethnic Identity Development

Constance G Kim-Gervery

Accelerated immigration during the last third of a century has had a drastic impact upon the demographic makeup of the United States (U.S.). By 1998, one-tenth of the U.S. population was foreign born. In 2001, the first and second generation of immigrants totaled 55 million persons—one out of every five Americans. This changing demographic in the U.S. was one of the most striking changes noted in the 1990 and 2000 U.S. censuses.

A corresponding, but limited, rise of awareness regarding issues of pluralism, discrimination, and racism has occurred in the popular culture since the 1960s. Growing awareness of societal differences in accordance with racial and ethnic groupings has been accompanied by social movements, as well as increased ethnic and racial consciousness.

Similarly, a corresponding, but limited growth in awareness regarding racial and ethnic groups has developed in the field of psychology. The American Psychological Association (APA) has recommended a description of samples by ethnic group, and race and ethnicity has been included as an important factor for consideration across a variety of areas in the psychology field. Ethnic identity, in particular, has become a focus for developmental research because of its link to psychological adjustment. Empirical findings have

related ethnic identity development to important psychological outcomes, including self-esteem, self-concept, psychological adjustment as well as social relationships, societal resources, and identity development. Such studies have examined specific ethnic and racial groups (including Greek, Italian Americans, French Canadians, Jews, African Americans, Latinos, and Asian Americans) in disproportionate numbers (in the U.S. most studies have been conducted with White ethnic groups and African Americans).

Ethnic Identity Defined

Models of both ethnic identity and racial identity exist. While they are related, these models are distinguishable through basic definitions of race and ethnicity. Models of racial identity are based on groupings by race, which is considered a biological construct consisting of shared biological, phenotypic, and genetic characteristics. Models of ethnic identity, on the other hand, are based on groupings by ethnicity, which is defined by shared traditions, language use, behavioral patterns or religious practices of people with a common ancestry.

Defined broadly, ethnic identity is the component of an individual's self-concept that is related to his or her connection with an ethnic group or groups. In the psychology field, a variety of researchers have studied ethnic identity in more specific terms, each highlighting different aspects of the individual's connection with his or her ethnic group as most important. Altogether, across a variety of studies regarding ethnic identity, these aspects include: self-identification (the ethnic label an individual chooses for oneself); sense of belonging to one's ethnic group; positive and negative attitude towards one's ethnic group; use of ethnic language having friends in one's ethnic group; affiliations with religions that are related to one's ethnic group; participation in ethnic clubs, societies, or organizations; belief in political ideology and participation in political activity on behalf of one's ethnic group; and finally, decision to live in a neighborhood with some proportion of same ethnic-group members. However, in part because the study of ethnic identity is still relatively young, psychologists have not yet come to consensus about which of these aspects of ethnic identity are indeed the *most* important.

Ethnic identity is generally studied in one of the following ways: as a study of the strength of ethnic identity (defined as one or more of the aspects of

ethnic identity listed above), or as a study of how far in ethnic identity development a person has come.

The Development of Ethnic Identity

The development of ethnic identity has primarily been understood as a stage theory, modeled after the developmental theory of Eric Erikson. Erikson's theory is grounded in the idea that a fundamental goal for adolescents is the achievement of a coherent, positive identity. The task of achieving this identity for the adolescent entails integrating knowledge about cultural and societal norms and perceptions, as well as childhood preferences, hopes, and self-concepts, into the adolescent's ideas about who they are and who they will become. The process of developing this identity is linear, moving from exploration and commitment that eventually leads to one of four identity states, varying in the achievement of identity. Individuals who achieve identity have clarity about both their hopes and goals for their futures, and who they are; individuals who do not achieve a secure identity are left in a state of identity confusion or diffusion, with little knowledge about who they are and what they hope to achieve.

Ethnic identity development follows the same trajectory described above. Ethnic identity development begins with a lack of awareness regarding ethnicity that typically involves a crisis or awakening that leads to exploration of the potential ethnic identity, and ends with clear understandings of ethnic identity, as well as comfortable and stable group memberships. A distinguishing element of ethnic identity development, as opposed to identity development, however, is the dynamic between the majority group and minority group culture.

The first stage of ethnic identity development, *unexamined ethnic identity*, ranges from an individual showing no interest or concern with his or her ethnic group or with ethnic issues, to an ethnic individual's preference for the cultural values of the dominant group over his or her ethnic group. At its extreme, the latter manifestation of this stage can also include the individual's internalization of the negative stereotypes of his or her own ethnic group that are perpetuated in the dominant group culture.

Ethnic identity search, or *moratorium*, is the second stage of ethnic identity development. A change occurs in this stage that prompts the exploration of ethnic

behaviors, cultures, and information by ethnic individuals. This change has been theorized as a range of possible occurrences, ranging from a shocking event that shakes the ethnic individual's belief systems, to an emotionally intense time during which anger is expressed towards the dominant culture, to the simple new awareness of a misfit between the dominant culture's views and the needs ethnic individuals perceive for themselves. The resulting exploration of ethnic information is ultimately a search for understanding not only ethnic group behaviors and beliefs, but also the dynamics and differences between majority and minority cultures.

The final stage of ethnic identity development is *ethnic identity achievement*. Ethnic identity achievement describes a solid level of comfort, acceptance, and internalization of one's ethnicity. Emotional stability, self-fulfillment, and pride in who one is make this identity the successful end goal of ethnic identity development. Studies have found that more achieved ethnic identity status is related to higher achievement of identity status, higher self-esteem for certain ethnic groups (specifically, African American and Mexican American), and good relations with family and peers. Generally, older students are more likely to have attained ethnic identity achievement than younger students; more college students than high school students have been found to reach ethnic identity achievement, and more tenth grade students than eighth grade students have reached ethnic identity achievement.

As it is currently conceptualized, ethnic identity development as a stage theory makes several implicit assumptions. First, it implies that ethnic identity, once achieved, remains stable and thus requires little further reconsideration. As such, it does not yet account for the possibilities of change in ethnic identities that might occur as a result of particularly meaningful adult experiences. Second, since the stage model focuses upon the development of a single ethnic identity, it implies that having a single predominant ethnic identity is the norm—an assumption that will likely shift over time, as the U.S. becomes more and more bicultural and multicultural. Of course, the study of ethnic identity and ethnic identity development is relatively young and will likely continue to grow and change over time.

See also: [Adolescent ethnic identity](#); [Black racial identity development](#); [Ego identity statuses](#); [Minority identity development model](#); [White racial identity development](#)

Suggested Reading

- Erikson, E. (1986). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.
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Ethnic Minority Youth

Courtney B Ferrell · Cheryl A Boyce · LeShawndra N Price

In the United States (U.S.), children or adolescents under the age of eighteen from the population's less populous ethnic and racial groups are referred to as ethnic minority youth. The definition of a minority group varies depending on context, but generally refers to either a subgroup of the total population, or a group that is not necessarily a numerical minority, but is disadvantaged or otherwise has less power (whether political or economic) than the majority group. Members of ethnic groups are often characterized by a common ancestry, history, language, and shared values and traditions. In the U.S., the term ethnic minority has traditionally referred to the non-White population. However, as the numerical, social, economic, political, and cultural influence of traditional minority groups increases, it becomes less and less appropriate to do so. Here, ethnic minority youth will be defined as children and adolescents under the age of eighteen that self-identify as American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, African American or Black, and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. Given the frequency at which the terms "race" and "ethnicity" are used interchangeably in the U.S., Hispanic youth will also be considered ethnic minority youth.

The U.S. federal government developed standards to provide consistent and comparable data on race and ethnicity across agencies for statistical and administrative purposes. The standards, originally issued in 1977 and subsequently revised and updated in 1997, describe a minimum set of categories for race (American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, African American or Black, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and White) and ethnicity (Hispanic Origin or not of Hispanic Origin). Respondents may select more than one racial group. The standards assert that the categories

are social constructions that are not based on biological or genetic data, do not establish criteria to be used in determining a person's race or ethnicity (e.g., self-identification is the preferred method of categorization), nor do they identify or designate specific population groups as "minority groups."

The basic racial and ethnic federal government categories are defined as follows:

- American Indian or Alaska Native. A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America), and who maintains cultural identification through tribal affiliation or community recognition.
- Asian or Pacific Islander. A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, South-east Asia, the Indian subcontinent, or the Pacific Islands. This area includes, for example, China, India, Japan, Korea, the Phillipine Islands, Hawaii, and Samoa.
- African American or Black. A person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa.
- Hispanic. A person of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.
- White. A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, North Africa, or the Middle East.

In 2003, there were 73 million children ages 0–17 in the U.S., or 25% of the total population. The racial and ethnic diversity of America's children continues to increase. In fact, ethnic minority youth are the largest growing segment of the U.S. population. In 2003, 60% of American children were White, 16% were African American, 4% were Asian, and 4% were all other races. The percentage of Hispanic children has increased faster than any of the individual racial categories, growing from 9% of the child population in 1980 to 19% in 2003. By 2020, it is projected that one in five children will be of Hispanic origin.

American Indian and Alaska Native Youth

The terms American Indian and Alaska Native (AI/AN) incorporate a diverse group of individuals including American tribal groups of Apache, Cherokee, Chippewa, Choctaw, Lumbee, Navajo, Pueblo, and Sioux. Currently, Cherokee and Navajo are the largest tribes. With respect to Alaska Natives, the Eskimos are the largest tribal

group. According to 2004 Census data, there are 4.4 million American Indians and Alaskan Natives living in the U.S., which is approximately 1.5% of the total U.S. population. A third of the AI/AN population is under the age of 18.

Challenges

American Indian and Alaska Native (AI/AN) youth face several obstacles within their community including, unemployment, poverty, alcohol and drug abuse, and mental health problems. The occurrence of alcohol and drug use is disproportionately high for AI/AN youth. Specifically, according to the 2004 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (SAMHSA) National Household Survey on Drug Abuse, 26% of AI/AN youth had used illicit drugs and 18% had consumed alcohol. Twenty percent of AI/AN youth reported substance abuse.

Violence and crime are often associated with frequent rates of substance use and abuse. For American Indian and Alaska Natives, the majority of juvenile offenses are associated with alcohol or drug use. In 1997, the arrest rate for American Indian juveniles in relation to alcohol-related offenses was twice that reported for any other race. In 2003, AI/AN youth remained the largest group associated with alcohol related offenses in that 800 out of every 100,000 AI/AN youth were arrested in relation to liquor law violations. In comparison, 500 and 100 out of every 100,000 White and African American youth respectively, were arrested for liquor law violations. Furthermore, due to the high crime rates, AI/AN youth are 58% more likely to be victims of crime than youth of other races.

Environmental factors such as drug and alcohol abuse, violence, and juvenile crime have placed AI/AN youth at great risk for the development of mental health problems. For example, suicide is a profound problem for American Indian youth. Studies have shown that a history of depression, family history of drug abuse, alcohol abuse, arrest history and racial discrimination are risk factors associated with suicidal behavior. Specifically, 30% of AI/AN youth have thought about or attempted suicide at least once. In addition, in 2000 the Indian Health Service, an agency within the Department of Health and Human Services, reported that 33.9 youth out of every 100,000 committed suicide. This number is 2.5 times that of the

national average and makes suicide the second leading cause of death for American Indian and Alaska Native youth. Steps have been taken to provide mental health treatment for this population. In 1965, the Office of Mental Health under the Indian Health Service was established on the Navajo reservation to serve as the primary provider of health and mental health services for tribal members. Currently, this office continues to be the main provider of mental health services; however, available resources have declined as the majority of services rendered through the Indian Health Service are alcohol related.

American Indian and Alaska Native youth are faced with economic hardships such as poverty, poor educational attainment, and unemployment. Specifically, as of November 2004, 20% of American Indians and Alaska Natives lived below the poverty line and the median income for those employed was \$34,740. For AI/AN youth, opportunity for employment in reservation communities is poor and has, in turn, pushed many youth away from their homes to more urban settings in search of better working conditions. However, in many cases moving away from the reservation leads to mainstream assimilation for these youth and therefore decreases their involvement in tribal cultural factors, which are often considered to be protective. With respect to education, 2000 U.S. Census data reported that 17% of American Indian youth between the ages of 16–19 were not enrolled in school and did not have a high school diploma. This number represents twice that of the national level. Furthermore, 18% of this group was unemployed in addition to not being enrolled in school.

Achievements

Achievement for AI/AN youth is largely rooted in continued pride and development within their own culture. For instance, during the past several decades the education system within the American Indian community has moved away from the controversial boarding school model, which took children from their homes to assimilate them to mainstream culture. Currently, the majority of schooling involves the enrollment of AI/AN youth in schools in colleges that are run by tribal leadership. Culturally based educational programs such as the Hoop of Learning have successfully increased the number of American Indian youth who are completing high school and attending

college. Specifically, in 2002, 100% of the Hoop of Learning students graduated from high school and 90% went on to attend college.

In 1986, Running Strong for American Indian Youth, a program designed to raise funds to support the basic needs of American Indians and to support the development of opportunities for self-sufficiency and self-esteem for tribal youth, was established. Billy Mills, an Olympic Gold Medalist and a Sioux is the spokesperson for Running Strong for American Indian Youth. Since its inception, several teen centers have been constructed on many of the American Indian reservations. Programs such as college scholarships, children's gardens, and enrichment camps have taken place through the Running Strong for American Indian Youth program.

Asian American or Pacific Islander Youth

Asian Americans have origins in countries including China, Japan, Pakistan, Korea, India, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Laos and compose approximately 4% of the U.S. population, while Pacific Islanders have origins from islands in the Pacific and include Native Hawaiians. Pacific Islanders are reported at less than 0.5% of the U.S. population in the last census reports. Most Asian American or Pacific Islander (AA/PI) families reside in the western U.S. states, particularly California and Hawaii. In the next 25 years, the AA/PI population in the U.S. is expected to almost double from approximately 11 million to over 20 million people.

Challenges

Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (AA/PIs) reflect a rich diversity and heritage with over 40 different ethnic groups and over 100 languages and dialects including Chinese, Tagalog, Vietnamese, Korean and Ōlelo Hawai'i. AA/PI families may be linguistically isolated as the adults within the household may not speak English ably. While Asian Americans are immigrants and their descendants, Pacific Islander youth share a unique history as original inhabitants of land now claimed by the U.S., assumptions that Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders may be a well-adjusted group without challenges do not reflect

evidenced-based reality. Research on the emotional, behavioral, health and academic functioning of AA/PI children and adolescents has not fully recognized the characteristics and heterogeneity of the population.

Asian American youths born in the U.S. or who immigrate at a younger age may have higher rates of behavioral and emotional problems as they are exposed to their American peers and communities. They may also experience familial conflict as they negotiate the cultural expectations of their parents regarding behavior and achievement. Pacific Islander youth may experience similar difficulties. High rates of poverty and poor access to health and education resources continue to be a challenge for Native Hawaiian youths. Alcohol and other drug related problems among youth, in their families and communities are another challenge for AA/PI youth.

Achievements

While sometimes perceived as a "model minority" that surpasses other ethnic minority and majority groups on many typical indicators of success, AA/PI youth are exposed to a variety of socioeconomic and cultural factors that may hinder or promote their well-being. Barriers such as language, culture, and limited access to health and education programs contribute to a host of diverse developmental outcomes for Asian American and Pacific Islander youth. Asian Americans do outperform minority and majority families on many indicators, including socioeconomic status and educational achievement. Review of income data indicates that Asian families have the largest family income of any group in the U.S. Asian American youth have a high rate of high school graduation and college attainment. In fact, Japanese youth have the highest educational attainment of all youth. Southeast Asians have the highest rates of high school and college graduation. Cambodian, Hmong, and Laotian youth have the lowest rates of educational achievement within the Asian population.

The family structure for AA/PI youth includes strong networks of relatives and non-relatives within their community. Success is highly valued within the family and community context. Culturally relevant prevention programs that employ the values of AA/PI families may benefit youth as they become more integrated into the U.S. social, cultural, educational and economic structural systems.

African American or Black Youth

African American youth are individuals under the age of 18, whose ancestors include an estimated 10–11 million Africans who were forcibly brought to the U.S. beginning in the early 1600s as slaves. Other terms that have been used to describe these children include Black, Afro American, or Black American. According to U.S. Census data, as of July 1, 2004, an estimated 39.2 million African Americans live in the U.S., comprising 13.4% of the overall population. Of this 39.2 million, approximately 32% are under the age of 18.

Challenges

African American youth are exposed to a number of persistent societal and economic disadvantages including poverty, juvenile crime, poor access to healthcare, and lower levels of educational attainment. With respect to economic standing, 2004 Census data showed that Black households had the lowest median income (\$30,134) in comparison to all other race groups. Specifically, the median income for White households was \$48,977 and \$57,518 for Asian households. The economic disparity continues in examining the U.S. poverty rates, as African American children are 2–3 times more likely to be affected by poverty than their White counterparts. In 2004, 24.7% of African Americans lived below the poverty line in comparison to 8.6% of Whites.

Regarding access to health care, in 2004 19.7% of African Americans were uninsured, which is greater than the overall percentage of 15.7% of uninsured individuals within the total U.S. population. Furthermore, 13% of African American children were uninsured in 2004. Currently, the majority of mental health services for African American youth take place in the juvenile justice system and other settings outside of traditional mental health facilities.

African American youth are overrepresented in the juvenile justice system. Although they comprise a small fraction of the U.S. population, African American youth account for 26% of juvenile arrests, 32% of delinquency referrals to juvenile court, and 46% of juveniles committed to secure institutions. As stated previously, studies indicate that much of the mental health problems of African American youth are mostly handled within the criminal justice system. Specifically,

research indicates that up to 75% of incarcerated youth have a diagnosable mental illness.

Aside from the notion that mental health treatment for African American youth is often handled within the walls of the juvenile justice system, there are several other barriers to the appropriate care of mental health illness for African American youth. For example, there are issues of access to appropriate care, misdiagnoses of symptoms, and overall mistrust of the health care system. Specifically, in working with African American youth, counselors should be aware of the concept of “healthy cultural paranoia.” Healthy cultural paranoia refers to an understandable initial mistrust or wariness toward counseling. This behavior generally is a coping tactic to shield oneself from further potential racial discrimination.

Although educational attainment has shown a steady increase within the African American population, an achievement gap between African American and White students continues to exist. Specifically, in 2004, 81% of African Americans ages 25 years and older had at least a high school diploma, whereas 90% of the White population had obtained at least a high school diploma. In further examination, the gap in educational attainment between these two races widens at higher educational levels, as 18% of African Americans held a bachelor's degree or more, while 31% of Whites held a bachelors degree. Research has suggested that part of the reason for the disparity between African Americans and Whites regarding educational attainment involves the differences in availability of quality educational resources. Approximately 40% of African American students attend public school in urban school districts where many of these schools are funded under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The conditions of these public schools are generally inferior to schools in suburban areas. Specifically, students have less access to updated textbooks and new technology.

Achievements

Despite environments that place African American children at greater risk for the development of mental health and substance abuse problems, African American youth typically maintain a high level of self-esteem. In grade school, African American children report more positive attitudes about school and their ability to perform than White children.

Social networks such as extended family and religious/church participation have contributed to the development and strength of self-esteem within the African American community. Specifically, according to a 2002 survey, approximately 53% of African Americans reported that they attended church on a weekly basis. Studies have documented that church participation is associated with enhanced self-esteem and the experience of lower psychological distress. In addition, African American youth involved with the church are less likely to be involved in crime than are African American youth not involved in church activities.

The African American family structure has also been noted to provide a buffer to psychological stress and negative effects of a child's environment. For African American families, the role of grandparent has been historically and culturally important. Grandparents often serve as the backbone of the family by providing physical and spiritual support. In more recent years the role of grandparent within African American families has become increasingly important as a large segment of African American families are single parent families. Essentially, grandparents fill the role of the "other parent." Furthermore, 11% of African American children are raised in families that are headed by a grandparent. For African American children who have a grandparent who is actively involved in their lives they have been reported to have higher self-esteem and sense of family connectedness.

Hispanic Youth

Immigration and births have made Hispanics the youngest, largest and fastest growing ethnic population in the U.S. with over 35 million people. Two-thirds of the Hispanic population are Mexican American. The remaining Hispanic population in America is comprised of individuals from Puerto Rican, Cuban, South American, Central American, Dominican, and Spanish backgrounds.

Challenges

Hispanic youth have heterogeneous experiences that may have an impact on their risk for health, academic and behavioral problems. Puerto Rican infants have higher death rates than White infants. Other public

health concerns are emerging for Hispanic youth, including high rates of childhood obesity and Type II diabetes. In addition, educational attainment is limited. Half of all Hispanic youth do not obtain high-school diplomas.

When compared to non-Hispanic White youth, Hispanic youth reported more anxiety, delinquency, depression, and drug use. Hispanic female adolescents across regions and ethnic groups are described as at higher risk for behavioral and emotional problems than other adolescents. Hispanic adolescents reported more suicidal ideation and suicide attempts than their non-Hispanic White and African American peers. Sadly, only about one-third of Hispanic female youth at-risk for suicide receive mental health treatment. Research indicates that Hispanic female youth who reside outside the continental U.S. are at decreased risk for suicide, which suggests negative consequences to acculturation in the U.S.

According to data from the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (SAMHSA) National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) in 2002 and 2003, Hispanic youth aged 12–17 were less likely to report past month alcohol use and past month marijuana use than non-Hispanic youth. Moreover, U.S. born Hispanic youth were more likely to have used illicit drugs in the past month than foreign born Hispanic youth. Among Hispanic subgroups, Cuban youth report the highest rates of alcohol use, while Puerto Rican youth report the highest rates of illicit drug use. The interesting paradox that Hispanic youths may fare worse in the U.S. suggests that there are aspects of the culture that may increase their resilience, if it can be fostered in the U.S.

Achievements

The Hispanic family structure serves as a stabilizing factor for many Hispanic children. Specifically, 67% of Hispanic families consist of married couples and 65% of Hispanic children grow up in homes with both parents. Factors such as these help to support strong self-esteem among Hispanic youth and have been used to set the ground work for several prevention programs. For example, in 2001 The White House established the "Initiative on Education Excellence for Hispanic Americans" which in part focuses on parental involvement to increase educational attainment. In addition, Hispanic youth have more recently been

exposed to better economic conditions. According to 2004 U.S. Census data, the median household income for Hispanic families has remained stable at \$34,241. From 1997–2002, Hispanic owned businesses increased by 31%, which was 3 times the national average.

Despite health disparities, poorer educational attainment, and risk for emotional and behavioral problems among Hispanics, research suggests that youth who obtain positive developmental outcomes are supported by their rich cultural heritage. Community based programs that build upon the strengths of Hispanic families and traditions are promising avenues for combating barriers to success.

Multiracial Youth

Multiracial children are a growing segment of the population. These children can be described as children born to parents from different racial and/or ethnic backgrounds or whose parents self-identify as being a member of more than one racial and/or ethnic group. Terms often used to describe these children include biracial, interracial, mixed or mixed race, and multiracial, which is the most inclusive term. The 2000 Census revealed that 2.4%, or 6.8 million, of the U.S. population reported more than one race. Forty-two percent of those reporting more than one race were under the age of 18. Among Hispanics reporting more than one race, 43% were 18 years old or younger. Among the 4.6 million non-Hispanics who reported more than one race, 41% were under age 18. The number of mixed-race children in the U.S. continues to steadily increase due to rises in interracial marriages and relationships. Publicity surrounding prominent Americans of mixed cultural heritage, such as athletes, actors, musicians, and politicians, has highlighted the issues of multicultural individuals and challenged long-standing views of race. However, despite some changes in laws and evolving social attitudes, multiracial children still face significant challenges.

Research on multiracial children has reported both negative and positive developmental outcomes. Studies have reported that multiracial children are more likely to experience higher rates of problems related to racial identity development, social marginalization, isolation, behavioral conduct and academic concerns. Results from the Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, a study of the influence of the social

environment on 90,000 7th to 12th grade adolescents' physical and mental health, show not only were students who reported mixed racial heritage more likely to suffer from depression, substance abuse, sleep problems, and various illnesses, they also had higher rates of school suspension, skipping class, repeating grades, access to weapons, and earlier age at first sexual intercourse.

The most common explanation for why multiracial children seem to be more vulnerable to poorer developmental and school outcomes is that multiracial children experience major difficulties with identity development, particularly racial identity development, and experience low self-esteem. Three theoretical explanations are suggested for why multiracial children seem to be more vulnerable to poorer outcomes.

The first theory posits that multiracial people are more prone to low self-esteem and its problems because they are marginalized and socially isolated from the monoracial groups making up their racial heritage. This theory, the "Marginal Man" theory, was first proposed by Robert Park in the 1920's. According to the theory, marginalization causes multiracial children difficulty in finding a group of peers with which they can identify. This isolation, subsequently, creates feelings of deficiency and low self-worth.

A second theory hypothesizes that multiracial children are forced to select a particular mono-race with which they must identify. Based on the historical norm of the "one-drop rule," also known as hypodescent, society identifies multiracial persons according to the race with the lowest social value among the races of their heritage. For example, a child born to an Asian parent and a White parent would be identified by society as Asian and would experience similar treatment as monoracial Asians. A child born to an Asian parent and an African American parent would be identified as African American, because the historical social hierarchy (which is rooted in a system of oppression and slavery) indicates that African Americans fall at the bottom of the hierarchy, followed by Hispanics, Asians, Native Americans, and Whites.

Such categorization may be difficult for multiracial children, particularly if language, physical features, life in the family context, and/or how the child identifies him- or herself differs from how society views them. While laws related to hypodescent and antimiscegenation no longer have legal standing, stereotyping, a potential consequence of hypodescent, is something

that all people encounter. Having to either live up to stereotypes or deny them is difficult and likely more complicated for multiracial children because they often must react to stereotypes of more than one racial and/or ethnic group. How one views him- or herself and how they perceive they are viewed by others is a critical component of racial identity development.

A third theory suggests that multiracial children develop extreme racial identity confusion during adolescence. When children have more than one culture with which to identify, they must not only grapple with meanings of skin color and social position within society, but also values, expectations, customs, and traditions within each group. Similarly, choosing a peer group or dating partners reflective of their racial and cultural identity (salient activities during identity development during adolescence) may be difficult for multiracial youth. While all adolescents must make choices about their peers and dating partners, these choices may be more problematic for multiracial youth. Multiracial youth may feel the need to choose one group over another. Negotiation of identity for monoracial youth in these areas is generally consistent, but for multiracial youth, differences between groups may be stressful and lead to tension within the family or with peers, cognitive dissonance and/or confusion, and poorer mental health and psychosocial adjustment.

Yet other research suggests that multiracial children are more likely to develop into more emotionally secure, assertive, independent adults. Studies refuting the marginal man hypothesis indicate that because of their position between two cultures, multiracial youth are able to retain high levels of ethnic identity and function as members of more than one culture without being in serious psychological conflict about those groups. The struggles multiracial youth face with their social groups, family, and within themselves are hypothesized to actually amplify multiracial youths' sense of racial/ethnic identity, similar to the way that historically persecuted groups maintain high levels of ethnic identity because of their persecution (e.g., Jews following internment during the Holocaust, Japanese following internment in World War II, African Americans and the Black Pride movement following the early civil rights movement). Research on multiracial high school students has indicated that multiracial youth identify with multiple groups instead of a single group and appear to be comfortable doing so. In addition, several studies have indicated that no differences exist in levels of self-esteem or adjustment

between monoracial and multiracial youth. Recent research also shows that multiracial children are as accepted, if not more accepted, by their monoracial peers.

The learning and developmental needs of multiracial children do not differ from the needs of all children. However, the in-school and out-of-school experiences of multiracial children may have an impact on multiracial children more than monoracial children. Schools, teachers, and parents in partnership with schools can help facilitate positive racial identity development and psychosocial adjustment in all children. Given that schools represent a powerful socializing agent, racial and cultural diversity in coursework and skills development should be fully integrated into the school curriculum. For instance, in addition to celebrating ethnic and cultural heritage once a year (i.e., Black History or Latino Heritage Month), opportunities should be taken to elaborate on the contributions of ethnic and cultural groups as various concepts are presented throughout the instructional day (e.g., Asian Americans and the scientific discovery of hormones and medicines, American Indians' historical role in U.S. military operations and government, discussions of literary elements in the works of Latino and Hispanic writers, discussions of African American contributions to number theory, mathematics, and computer science). Teachers have the ability to foster critical thinking skills and influence critical thinking about race, ethnicity, and culture in the youth they teach. As such, teachers must reexamine their own thoughts about race and ethnicity. Schools should offer culturally sensitive training opportunities to assist teachers in reflecting on their own beliefs and biases and developing culturally sensitive teaching strategies.

See also: ▶ [Acculturation](#); ▶ [Adolescent ethnic identity](#); ▶ [Biracial/multiracial identity development](#); ▶ [Cultural resilience](#); ▶ [Ethnic identity development](#); ▶ [Ethnicity](#); ▶ [Mentoring diverse youth](#); ▶ [Multicultural teacher training](#); ▶ [People of color](#)

Suggested Reading

- Banks, J. A., & Banks, C. A. M. (Eds.) (2003). *Handbook of research on multicultural education*, (2nd ed.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Root, M. M. P., & Kelly, M. (Eds.) (2003). *The multiracial child resource book*. Seattle: Mavin Foundation.

Suggested Resources

Forum on Child and Family Statistics—<http://www.childstats.gov/>:

This government website offers easy access to statistics and reports on children and families.

U.S. Census Bureau Minority Links—<http://www.census.gov/pubinfo/www/NEWafamML1.html>: This website provides links to facts about various minority populations.

Ethnicity

Dinelia Rosa

An ethnic group is a human population whose members identify with each other, usually based on a presumed common genealogy or ancestry. Ethnic groups are also typically united by common cultural, behavioral, linguistic, or religious practices. Members of an ethnic group generally claim a strong cultural continuity over time. Ethnicity focuses more upon the connection to a perceived shared past and culture. “Ethnic,” derived from the Greek *ethnos*, meaning *people*, was used to refer to non-Greek peoples, or foreigners.

The original term of ethnicity was associated with earliest forms of kinship-based ethnic group, most closely corresponding to the term “tribe.” Members of an ethnic group procreated only with members of their ethnic group. Partly because of invasions, migrations, and religious crusades, people began to procreate outside of their own kinship; this contributed to a further evolution of new ethnic groups.

Ethnicity should be distinguished from nationality. Whereas nationality refers only to citizenship of a given state or country, the concept of ethnicity is rooted in the idea of social groups, marked by shared nationality. However, because many countries have multiple ethnic groups living within them, one’s nationality does not necessarily correspond to one’s ethnicity.

Ethnicity and race should also be distinguished. Race refers to the categorization of people by genotype and/or phenotypic traits, whereas ethnicity concerns group identification. They both bring a unique set of experiences and worldview that would have an impact on the way the individual relates in the world. However, both terms have been erroneously interpreted as equivalent and used interchangeably. For example,

whereas Blacks can be perceived as one group, they may also have membership in diverse ethnic groups. A Black Hispanic Caribbean who self-identifies as Hispanic rather than as a Black person may encounter great conflict when identified by others as being Black. This erroneous interchange of race and ethnicity may cause feelings of unfair discrimination.

Collectives of related ethnic groups are typically denoted as “ethnic.” For example in the United States (U.S.), the various Latin American ethnic groups and the Spanish are typically grouped as “Hispanics.” Similarly, Asian ethnic groups are grouped as “Asians,” and African ethnic groups in the U.S. are grouped as “African American.”

One’s ethnic/racial identity may result from self-identification or from an imposition by others. Identifying other people’s ethnicity can be a powerful political tool for controlling and marginalizing. Political and economic powers have usually defined their ethnic/racial group as superior to the others. Being “White” has been associated with being intelligent and successful. This idea was reinforced through social systems, the educational system being the most influential. Being “Black” was identified with the opposite. Other ethnic groups such as Mexican American, Arab American, and Southeast Asians have also been labeled negatively.

Ethnic identity has a powerful effect on the way people relate to others. Adolescents (of all ethnicities) are especially faced with challenges associated with processing their ethnic identity. For example, Whites are often not included in educational systems of information related to their own ethnicity and are then confronted when they are included in curricula covering how “Whites” have been unfair to people of color. In many instances, this can promote a negative image of their ethnicity and consequently of themselves; this may partly explain why many Whites identify with and adopt traits of other ethnic groups (e.g. music, style of dress, and slang language). Children of other ethnic groups confront different challenges such as distancing themselves from behaviors and customs that would identify them with their own ethnicity. They may prefer to speak English rather than their parents’ native language, or choose to dress and act like their American peers. Schools are an appropriate setting to teach students about ethnicity and ethnic identity. Therefore, teachers and other school professionals are faced with the challenges of themselves becoming sensitive to issues of ethnicity, to promoting class

discussions, and creating opportunities for their students to experience different cultures.

See also: [Cultural diversity](#); [Ethnic minority youth](#); [People of color](#); [Race](#)

Suggested Reading

Abizadeh, A. (2001). Ethnicity, race, and a possible humanity. *World Order*, 33(1), 23–34.

Smith, A. D. (1987). *The ethnic origins of nations*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Extended Family

Cheryl Danzy · Velma LaPoint · Jo-Anne Manswell Butty · Charlynn Small

The extended family can be defined as a kinship or fictive kinship network comprised of parents, children and other relatives, sometimes living in the same household. In some cultures, especially those comprising United States (U.S.) ethnic group families of color, extended families are the basic unit of social organization. Often these family members live together and form extended family households. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, an extended family household is formed when children live with a biological or adoptive parent and at least one other person outside of their immediate family. The definition of extended family includes other diverse families where parents may be gay, lesbian, or transgendered or where parents may be hearing and seeing impaired or with other physical or mental health challenges.

Research suggests that the rate of extended family households is increasing and that these families are an asset in rearing children where they have shown positive educational and other developmental outcomes. The extended family has been especially instrumental in the development and well-being of children from ethnic group families of color, and in many cases, is more common than the nuclear households (households comprised of biological or adoptive parents and children only) that are characteristic of European American families. In working with children from increasingly diverse groups of families, including

extended family households, it is necessary to understand the structure and function of extended families and their impact on child outcomes.

Trends

While the extended family and its childrearing context are not unique, examination of population data offers insight about the diversity among American families. The U.S. Census Bureau revealed two significant trends regarding extended families. First, White American children were less likely (12%) than children of other racial and ethnic groups (22–24%) to live in extended family households. Second, the Census Bureau revealed an increase in the overall percentage of households comprised of extended family members—increasing from 8 million to 10.3 million in studies of the most recently available data. Most of the reported extended family households were formed by the presence of additional relatives rather than by the presence of non-relatives in the household. In cases where extended family households are formed by the presence of non-relatives or non-relatives and relatives, children were more likely to be in the care of one parent only. The exception to this is found in households comprised of non-White, non-Hispanic children—where extended family households are equally as likely to be comprised of relatives and non-relatives. This is in contrast to the two-parent situations that are more likely when an extended family household is formed by the addition of relatives only.

The increase in the number of extended family households is influenced by major societal political, cultural, economic, and social factors, namely (a) increased rates of immigration, (b) increased rates of children born to single parent mothers, and (c) decreased economic resources. Regarding immigration, it is common for newly immigrated persons to live with family members already in the U.S. when they first arrive. These family members serve as sponsors and provide an economic and social support system while an individual acclimates to the new environment. Extended families formed as a result of immigration status are most common among Asian and Pacific Islander children and Hispanic children, since they comprise the majority of new immigrants.

Children born to single parents represent another factor in the increase of extended family households. These children are more likely than children born into

two-parent households to experience periods of living with other relatives—especially grandparents. This tendency is largely attributed to the need for single parents to seek supplemental social and income support. Whereas sharing resources is often one of the primary reasons for an extended family household to form, single parents are more likely to rear their children in a household with other relatives or non-relatives. Economic factors such as the lack of viable employment and affordable housing are contributing factors. When faced with a lack of economic resources, family members sometimes find the need to pool resources to make ends meet. In periods when the economy experiences a downturn, the presence of extended family households can be expected to increase. Finally, extended family households have become the norm or are more common among certain ethnic/racial groups such as African Americans and Hispanic Americans.

Types of Families and Extended Families

Several social scientists and practitioners have described diverse typologies of U.S. ethnic group families of color. One typology indicates that there are 12 sub-types of Black families within three types of families. They are: (a) *nuclear family* with three sub-types: *incipient nuclear* comprised of a husband and wife only; a *simple nuclear family* comprised of husband and wife with one or more children; and an *attenuated nuclear family* comprised of a single parent, male or female, with one or more children; (b) *extended family* with three subtypes: *incipient extended family* comprised of a husband and wife and other family members; *simple extended family* comprised of husband and wife with one or more children, and other relatives; and an *attenuated extended family* comprised of a single parent, male or female, family, husband or wife, with one or more children, and other relatives; and (c) *augmented family* with six subtypes: *incipient nuclear family* with a husband and wife with one or more non-relatives; *incipient extended augmented family* with a husband and wife, other relatives and non-relatives; *nuclear augmented family* comprised of husband and wife, with one or more children and non-relatives; *nuclear extended augmented family* comprised of a husband and wife, with one or more children, relatives, and non-relatives; *attenuated augmented family* comprised

of a single parent, male or female, one or more children, and non-relatives, and the *attenuated extended augmented family* comprised of a single parent, male or female with one or more children and both relatives and non-relatives. These family types may exist among all families, but especially in ethnic group families of color.

Co-Residential and Custodial Grandparents

Just as extended families and extended family households are not novel concepts, grandparents taking part in childrearing, and/or living in extended family households is not a new phenomenon. Historically, grandparents have always had a role in childrearing among all U.S. families. However, in the early 1990's, researchers and policy makers noticed a significant increase in the role of grandparents in childrearing—both in primary caregiver capacities and in other roles. Due to the noticeable increase of children living in households with grandparents, the 2,000 Census added questions regarding grandparents and childrearing with data indicating that 5% of all children live in a household with a grandparent. Of these children, only 14% lived in a household with both a mother and father present, while the greatest number (45%) were living in a household with a mother and grandparent but no father present. The remaining 35% of children living in households with grandparents had neither a mother nor a father in the household.

Data suggests that the reasons for increases in the number of co-resident and custodial grandparents are complex and varied. In some cases, grandparents live in households with children because they are dependent on the parents of their grandchildren for care and economic support. But, it appears that, in the majority of situations, co-resident and custodial grandparents are either partly or totally responsible for childrearing long- or short term due to: (a) parental work (e.g., military deployment in war-torn nations, employment in distant locations for better economic opportunities), (b) parental institutionalization in hospitals for mental or physical incapacitation (e.g., mental illnesses, drug abuse); (c) parental youth where children or adolescents are deemed too inexperienced to rear children; (d) parental economic instability with challenges in maintaining employment; (e) parental incarceration in jails or prisons (e.g., criminal offenses,

child abuse); and (f) unfit parents where natural parents are self- or legally-defined as unable to appropriately rear children (e.g., involved in illegal or inappropriate lifestyles). In most cases, these caregiver relationships are long-term (expected to last 5 years or more). Research suggests that younger grandparents, (less than 60 years old), have been shown more likely than older grandparents to have caregiver responsibility for children—especially in a long-term arrangement. Research has also shown that Black families are more likely than Asian, Hispanic, and European American families to rely on grandparents as caregivers.

Benefits and Challenges of Extended Family Child Rearing

The extended family, both in situations where parents are unable or unwilling to care for their own children, and where relatives and non-relatives provide supplemental care, has been shown to benefit children. Extended family members can help children provide unique learning opportunities, help children to adjust to formal educational settings, and avoid conditions that place children at risk in communities and society, especially in less than optimal environments (e.g., school failure, violence, drug abuse). Emergent strengths-based research suggests that extended family members can be a powerful asset to educators and other school practitioners. On the other hand, some extended families may face conditions that can render them vulnerable as they seek to rear children (e.g., aging adult family members with associated health challenges, inadequate economic resources). Some extended family members may also become frustrated, angered, and resentful towards parents especially if they view them as not fulfilling their own parental responsibilities and/or interfering with the family members' own developmental needs as individual family members. It is important to fully understand and assess the nature, assets, and liabilities of extended family relationships, if present, on children in schools. By engaging the extended family and drawing upon its strengths, school practitioners can assist children in school adjustment and their overall well-being.

See also: 🔗 [Cross-cultural school psychology](#); 🔗 [Culture](#); 🔗 [Home-school partnerships](#); 🔗 [Parental involvement in education](#)

Suggested Reading

- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1972). *Influences on human development*. Hinsdale, IL: Dryden Press.
- Morton, D. D. (2000). Beyond parent education: The impact of extended family dynamics in deaf education. *American Annals of the Deaf*, 145(4), 359–365.

Suggested Resources

- Children's Defense Fund website—www.childrensdefense.org: The Children's Defense Fund (CDF) provides a strong, effective voice for all the children of America who cannot vote, lobby, or speak for themselves. It has a specific focus on the needs of poor and minority children and those with disabilities.
- Kinship Care Resource Center—<http://www.kinshipcare.net/index.html>: The Kinship Care Resource Center provides support for the physical, emotional, cultural, and social well-being of kinship families in Michigan by linking families to community resources.
- National Council on Family Relations website: <http://www.ncfr.org/>—The National Council on Family Relations website (NCFR) provides a forum for family researchers, educators, and practitioners to share in the development and dissemination of knowledge about families and family relationships. The NCFR also publishes two journals and sponsors an annual conference.

Extracurricular Activities

Jennifer Shannon

In the United States (U.S.), high school youth spend approximately 40% of their waking hours in leisure activities. With the right opportunities and caring adults, after-school hours can be the most valuable time for children to advance themselves and grow into healthy, functioning adults. For the youth who do not utilize this time in a structured and appropriate manner, these hours can be filled with drugs, alcohol, sex, crime, and maladaptive social networks. If filled with extracurricular activities, these time periods provide the potential for an abundance of educational, social, and athletic opportunities.

Traditionally, highly structured extracurricular activities are defined as those having regular schedules, rule-guided engagement, and direction by competent adults. Additionally, the ideal extracurricular activity emphasizes skill development that increases in

complexity, and performance that requires sustained active attention with clear feedback. It is not necessary that extracurricular activities be school-based, although those are often the most accessible. The National Center for Educational Statistics classified activities as falling into the following categories: Arts, Sports, Clubs, Academic Activities, Community Services, Religious Activities, Scouts, and Other. Comprehensive and detailed lists of specific activities are available at most schools and community centers.

The wide array of benefits associated with participation in appropriate extracurricular activities include an increased engagement in school and potential for a stronger academic self-concept, as well as personal, social, and emotional self-concept development. Children who are actively engaged tend to have higher grade point averages (GPAs), better attendance and graduation rates, aspirations for higher education, and an increased rate of college attendance. Additionally, they are less likely to drop out of school prematurely than nonparticipating peers. Structured activities foster a sense of belongingness and may protect against dropout by facilitating students' school identity and keeping them connected with the social fabric of the school. The degree to which this protective mechanism occurs may be contingent upon the extent to which students have an opportunity to participate in such activities. Students in smaller schools have a much higher rate of participation in extracurricular activities as compared to their peers at larger schools. The influence of school size on student engagement and school environment is indirectly associated with the dropout rate, as demonstrated by strong links to rate of participation in extracurricular activities.

Participation has been associated with constructs such as self-concept development and life satisfaction. Furthermore, activities provide an opportunity to develop and enhance personal strengths and talents, contributing to positive self-esteem and identity formation. Most extracurricular activities involve youth in positive social networks, encouraging new connections with peers and relationships with unrelated adults. These supportive social networks create an environment in which positive interpersonal social skills are developed and encouraging adult role models provide guidance.

Extracurricular participation appears to serve as protection against unacceptable societal behavior. For example, students involved in extracurricular activities experiment with tobacco, alcohol, and drugs, but to a

lesser extent than nonparticipating peers. While it should not be assumed that these activities provide guaranteed protection against deviant behavior, a preventative relationship is present. Students considered "at-risk" for dropout, crime, and violence may indirectly benefit from participation in extracurricular activities. Perhaps one of the most important factors associated with extracurricular participation is the promotion of resilience. Research suggests that participation in activities increases and enhances resilience among youth, helping them not succumb to a multitude of problems.

Although limited research has been conducted on multicultural factors associated with extracurricular activities, preliminary data indicates that activities do facilitate the development of positive social relations across ethnic groups. To illustrate, it has been noted that interracial friendships are more likely to form in schools with integrated extracurricular activities, creating school climates that are more favorable to the formation of cross-race friendships.

For the many benefits and positive associations often seen with extracurricular participation, youth should be encouraged to participate in appropriate structured activities and acquire the social, physical, and academic skills that will undoubtedly have an impact on many areas of their lives.

See also: ➤ *After-school programs*; ➤ *Retention*; ➤ *Social skills*

Suggested Reading

- Eccles, J. S., Barber, B. L., Stone, M., & Hunt, J. (2003). Extracurricular activities and adolescent development. *The Journal of Social Issues*, 59(4), 865–889.
- Gilman, R., Meyers, J., & Perez, L. (2004). Structured extracurricular activities among adolescents: Findings and implications for school psychology. *Psychology in the Schools*, 41(1), 31–41.
- Larner, M. B., Zippiroli, L., & Behrman, R. E. (1999). When school is out: Analysis and recommendations. *Future Child*, 9(2), 4–20.

Suggested Resources

National Center for Education Statistics: Indicator 34—<http://nces.ed.gov/program/coe/2004/section6/indicator34.asp>: This website offers statistics and information regarding the after-school activities of children in the U.S. from kindergarten through the eighth grade.